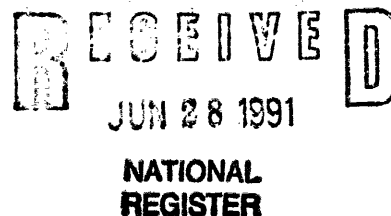


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**National Register of Historic Places  
Multiple Property Documentation Form**



This form is for use in documenting multiple property groups relating to one or several historic contexts. See instructions in *Guidelines for Completing National Register Forms* (National Register Bulletin 16). Complete each item by marking "x" in the appropriate box or by entering the requested information. For additional space use continuation sheets (Form 10-900-a). Type all entries.

**A. Name of Multiple Property Listing**

Federal Relief Construction in Minnesota, 1933-1941

**B. Associated Historic Contexts**

Federal Relief Programs in Minnesota, 1933-1941

**C. Geographical Data**

The State Of Minnesota

☐ See continuation sheet

**D. Certification**

As the designated authority under the National Historic Preservation Act of 1966, as amended, I hereby certify that this documentation form meets the National Register documentation standards and sets forth requirements for the listing of related properties consistent with the National Register criteria. This submission meets the procedural and professional requirements set forth in 36 CFR Part 60 and the Secretary of the Interior's Standards for Planning and Evaluation.

Ian R. Stewart  
Signature of certifying official

6/6/91  
Date

Deputy State Historic Preservation Officer

State or Federal agency and bureau

Minnesota Historical Society

I, hereby, certify that this multiple property documentation form has been approved by the National Register as a basis for evaluating related properties for listing in the National Register.

Beth Boland  
Signature of the Keeper of the National Register

8/12/91  
Date

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**E. Statement of Historic Contexts**

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Discuss each historic context listed in Section B.

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Federal Relief Construction in Minnesota, 1933-1941

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## I. THE PUBLIC WORKS ADMINISTRATION

The Federal Emergency Administration of Public Works, commonly known as the Public Works Administration, was established on June 17, 1933 by Executive Order 6174. The agency was created under the authority of Title II, "Public Works and Construction Projects," of the National Industrial Recovery Act. On May 17, President Roosevelt delivered a message to Congress in which he described his proposed public works program:

A careful survey convinces me that approximately \$3,300,000,000 can be invested in useful and necessary public construction and at the same time put the largest possible number of people to work. Provision should be made to permit States, counties, and whomever, to the most effective possible means of eliminating favoritism and wasteful expenditures on unwarranted and uneconomic projects. [1]

The Public Works Administration (PWA) was not considered a relief agency. Its purpose was to stimulate economic recovery by providing employment for workers in the building trades and in the industries supplying construction materials, and by "priming the pump" of industry and increasing purchasing power by placing large sums of money in circulation. Harold L. Ickes, the Secretary of the Interior, was appointed administrator of the PWA and was placed in charge of the 3.3 billion dollars appropriated by Congress.

The PWA provided financial assistance for public works in the form of outright grants, loans, or a combined grant and loan. The entire cost of a federal project was paid from the appropriation, while states and their subdivisions could receive a grant of thirty percent of the cost of labor and materials together with a loan for any portion of the balance. The maximum grant was increased to forty-five per cent in 1935. Non-public corporations were eligible for loans but not grants.

The recovery act did not specify all projects eligible for assistance, however, the following classes of undertakings were

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listed because it was believed they would best serve the interest of the general public:

(1) The construction, repair, and improvement, of public highways and parkways, public buildings, and any publicly-owned instrumentalities and facilities.

(2) The conservation and development of natural resources, including the control, utilization, and purification of waters, the prevention of soil or coastal erosion, the development of water power, the transmission of electrical energy, flood control, the construction of river and harbor improvement, and certain river and drainage improvements.

(3) The construction, reconstruction, alteration, or repair, under public regulation or control, of low-cost housing and slum clearance projects, and assistance in the purchase of subsistence homesteads.

(4) The financing of self-liquidating projects formerly eligible for assistance by the Reconstruction Finance Corporation, to which are now added the construction or completion of hospitals, financed in part from public funds, reservoirs, pumping plants, and dry docks.

(5) The construction of naval vessels and aircraft, technical works for the army air corps, army housing projects, and original equipment for the mechanization or motorization of army tactical units.

(6) The financing of such railroad maintenance and equipment as might be approved by the Interstate Commerce Commission as desirable for the improvement of transportation facilities.  
[2]

Even before the proposed public works program was officially in place, construction periodicals, such as The Improvement Bulletin, expressed strong support for the proposal. The May 19, 1933 edition of this Minneapolis weekly featured a cover which included the following text:

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Approval of Congress of a \$3,300,000,000 public works-industrial control bill, designed to stimulate employment through the building of public works and to permit industry to enter trade agreements, will make possible the speedy inauguration of a construction program which will start a flow of dollars through the channels of industry, bringing jobs to many. The bill provides \$400,000,000 for public highways, with undetermined expenditures for public buildings, slum clearance, forest work, and soil erosion work. A nationally launched construction program will supply employment to idle men and restore purchasing power, and will hasten the day of emergence from the depression cycle.

Even before the necessary bureaucracy had been established to administer the PWA program in Minnesota, Governor Floyd B. Olson announced that Minnesota would request \$83,560,000 in federal funds. A tentative list of public works projects had been prepared by Governor Olson, E.V. Willard, acting Commissioner of the State Department of Conservation, and N.W. Elsberg, the State Highway Commissioner. The projects included completion of a nine-foot channel on the Mississippi river from Minneapolis to Iowa, a variety of flood control projects, highway and bridge construction, and funding for local public works. [3]

On July 26, 1933 a Minnesota State Advisory Board was appointed by President Roosevelt in order to consider applications for public works projects in Minnesota. The board members included N.W. Elsberg, the State Highway Commissioner, Judge John F.D. Meighen, a banker from Albert Lea, and Fred Schilplin, a newspaper publisher from St. Cloud. Elsberg provided office space for the State Advisory Board in the offices of the State Highway Department at 1246 University Avenue in St. Paul. Roosevelt also appointed Frank W. Murphy of Wheaton, Minnesota, a farm leader and President of the Minnesota State Bar Association, as the regional advisor to the Public Works Administration for Region No. 4, an area which included Minnesota, North Dakota, South Dakota, Nebraska, Iowa, and Wyoming. Located in Omaha, the regional office served as the liaison between the federal government and the states. William N. Carey, the City Engineer for St. Paul, was

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also appointed the State Engineer for the Minnesota PWA and he served as the executive officer of the State Advisory Board. [4]

The purpose of the state board was to stimulate the submission of applications for allotments and to circulate information concerning projects eligible for grants and loans. The board prepared a report on each application and forwarded both the application and the report to Washington. A favorable or unfavorable recommendation was also included. A staff of engineers organized the state office and received, recorded, and examined all applications. The engineers and their staffs provided the only detailed analysis of the applications and the advisory boards usually adhered to the engineer's recommendations. Eventually the advisory boards were abolished and the state engineers became the principal representative of the Public Works Administration in the field. The engineers were also involved in the inspection and supervision of all projects previously approved. The country was also divided into seven regions, [See Exhibit I] although very little use was made of the regional administrative units until 1937. At that time the regional director was placed in charge of supervision of construction. These officers served as both consulting engineers in regard to the construction contracts and specifications and as supervisors for the engineers assigned to monitor the construction process. [5]

The first act of the Minnesota State Advisory Board at its initial meeting was to approve a request by C.C. Ludwig, City Manager of Albert Lea, asking for a loan and grant of \$147,000 for repaving the Albert Lea business district, and a grant of 30% of the cost of an \$18,000 water works improvement project. [6]

The following list includes many of the initial applications for funding from the Public Works Administration which were submitted to the Minnesota Advisory Board:

- Albert Lea - City, waterworks system, \$11,750; paving, \$166,300.
- Alexandria - City, enlarging light, water and municipal heating plant, \$84,000.
- Bovey - Village, village hall and auditorium, \$60,000.
- Biwabik - Village, sewage plant, \$19,171.
- Blue Earth - City, electric light plant, \$95,271.
- Calumet - Village, paving, bridge and waterworks system, \$11,740.

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**Crookston** - City, street surfacing, \$3,361; public school building, \$107,142.  
**East Grand Fords** - City, dam, \$19,650.  
**Eveleth** - City, paving, sewers, reservoir, \$443,567.  
**Gilbert** - Village, paving, \$43,086; sewers, sidewalks and curbs, \$28,458.  
**Grove City** - Village, electrical distribution plant, \$6,000.  
**Harmony** - Village, paving, waterworks, and remodeling municipal buildings, \$39,587.  
**Hibbing** - Village, paving, sewage treatment, waterworks system, heating and lighting, \$1,429,029.  
**Itasca** - County, road improvements, \$173,115.  
**Lake of the Woods Bridge Company** - Toll bridge at Baudette, \$250,787.  
**Minnesota State Highway Department** - Miscellaneous highway repairs, \$303,607.  
**University of Minnesota** - buildings, \$350,000.  
**Rice** - County, court house, \$100,000.  
**St. Louis** - County, school buildings, \$107,000; highway grading and graveling, \$2,353,465; bituminous treatment of roads, \$337,050; frost boil prevention, \$73,616; bridges, \$160,830; paving, \$26,750.  
**St. Paul** - City, intercepting sewers, \$5,943,540; paving \$860,601; building renewal and remodeling, \$652,673; airport grading and surfacing, sewers, \$486,826; waterworks, \$634,180; city market, \$235,000; new schools, stadium and shelter houses, \$2,109,000.  
**Thief River Falls** - City, power plant, \$56,984.  
**Virginia** - City, hospital, \$118,800; road improvement, \$25,000; park improvements, \$160,000.  
**Austin** - Village, repairs to roof slab of reservoir, \$12,450; warehouse and garage, \$36,910.  
**Dundas** - Village, village hall, \$8,086.  
**Elbow Lake** - Village, auditorium and library, \$48,803.  
**Itasca** - County, construction of poor home, nurses home and addition to county hospital, \$2,483.  
**Kasson** - Village, drilling new well, \$1,167.  
**Minneapolis** - City, public school construction, \$6,545,000.  
**Osakis** - Village, water main extension, \$12,102.  
**Springfield** - City, water purification plant, \$10,000. [7]

While not all projects may have received funding, it is interesting to note the variety of improvements for which federal assistance was requested. Applications were evaluated based on the following criteria:

1. The relation of the particular project to coordinated planning, and its social desirability.
2. Economic desirability of the project, i.e., its relation to unemployment and revival of industry.

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3. The soundness of the project from an engineering and technical standpoint.

4. The financial ability of the applicant to complete the work and to reasonably secure any loans made by the United States.

5. The legal enforceability of the securities to be purchased by the United States, or any lease to be entered into between the applicant and the United States. [8]

As a result of these strict guidelines, many applications were returned because they were lacking in detail or because the preliminary plans and specifications were not complete. In order to assist counties and municipalities in preparing applications, the Governor's committee on public works requested that every county highway engineer provide instructions to each applicant. Information regarding the procedures for obtaining public works funding was also provided by the League of Minnesota Municipalities through a series of meetings held at Mora, Preston, Slayton, New Ulm, Stillwater, Hopkins, Wadena, Moorhead, Crookston, Bemidji, and Chisholm. [9]

By March 16, 1934, PWA projects in Minnesota with a total value of \$26,228,669 had been approved. These represented 93 allotments to 85 municipalities. The largest single project was for the sanitary sewer district of Minneapolis and St. Paul for which Minneapolis was allotted \$11,525,000 and St. Paul was allotted \$6,521,000. The smallest allotment was \$1,168 to the village of Kasson for a well. [10] The first federal PWA grant money allotted in the United States came to Minnesota in part payment of a grant to the village of Elbow Lake for the erection of a combination auditorium and library. The payment was \$5,060.

The PWA continued to be the primary public works financing agency of the national government until the middle of 1935. With Title Two of the National Industrial Recovery Act about to expire, Congress enacted the Emergency Relief Appropriation Act of 1935. This statute, carrying the largest appropriation in the history of the nation, made available to the President the sum of \$4,880,000,000 for use until June 30, 1937. The Emergency Relief Appropriation Act specifically continued the life of the Public Works Administration until June 30, 1937, and authorized the President to permit the PWA to perform functions under both the



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Recovery Act and the new statute. [10] The President also created several new agencies including the Works Progress Administration. Because there was no clear understanding of the distinction between the projects assigned to the PWA and those over which the WPA had jurisdiction, a statement was issued by the Public Works Administrator, the Works Progress Administrator, and the executive director of the National Emergency Council, with the approval of the President.

The PWA was to receive applications for construction projects, other than those of a repair or maintenance character, where the aggregate cost of completion was estimated to be more than \$25,000. Typical projects included buildings of various types, bridges, power distributing plants, highways, canals, subway tunnels, filtration plants, water distributing systems, and disposal plants. The PWA could make grants and loans to public bodies for such undertakings, and, in addition, could continue its program of slum clearance and low-cost housing. All applications for loans, regardless of the cost or type of project, were also required to be submitted to the PWA. The Works Progress Administration, on the other hand, was to consider applications involving only grants of federal money. It would undertake work of a non-construction nature designed to employ professional, clerical, and other white collar workers as well as construction projects costing less than \$25,000. In addition, it was indicated that applications rejected by the PWA should be submitted to the WPA. Since that agency was chiefly concerned with providing work relief, the WPA might find the application eligible even though the PWA, with its more severe financing rules, had been forced to reject the application. In other words, projects sponsored by the PWA were generally more extensive and involved only new construction. [11]

The PWA was continued until July 1, 1939 by the Public Works Administration Extension Act of 1937. The statute appropriated \$15,000,000 for administrative expenses and \$59,000,000 for grants. The Public Works Administration Appropriation Act of 1938 extended to life of the PWA to June 30, 1941 and appropriated \$965,000,000 to the agency. In addition, loans could be made up to a total of \$400,000,000 from funds realized through the sale of securities acquired from the appropriation, or with proceeds from the securities. [12] This final appropriation to the Public

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Works Administration required that all applications be submitted by September 30, 1938, that construction begin by January 1, 1940, and that the project should be substantially completed by June 30, 1940. [13] The following projects were among the final applications approved and funded for Minnesota. The total project cost as well as the grant from the PWA are listed.

Albert Lea - rural school building, \$6,000, grant \$2,970.  
Austin - bridge, \$15,000. grant, 6,912.  
Bemidji - school auditorium, \$175,000, grant, \$78,750.  
Bird Island - water system, \$4,300, grant, \$1,935.  
Duluth - highway construction, \$878,160, grant, \$395,172.  
Mankato - highway garage, \$33,000, grant, \$14,850.  
Minneapolis - journalism building, U of M, \$275,000, grant, \$123,750.  
Minneapolis - three new fire stations, \$284,703, grant, \$128,116.  
New Prague - city hall, garage, fire station, \$43,751, grant, \$19,688.  
New Ulm - swimming pool and bathhouse, \$63,636 grant, \$28,636.  
Owatonna - machine shop and warehouse, \$16,060, grant, 7,223.  
Preston - municipal power plant addition, \$46,200, grant, \$20,790.  
South St. Paul - sewage treatment plant, \$960,552. grant, \$432,248.  
[14]

The diversity of projects undertaken in Minnesota was illustrated by thirteen buildings and structures selected from throughout the state which were pictured in a 1939 PWA publication entitled Public Building: Architecture Under The Public Works Administration 1933-1939. These included:

Bovey Village Hall  
Minneapolis Armory  
Hibbing Memorial Building  
Ely Community Building  
Elbow Lake Public Library  
Moose Lake School Building  
Rochester Public Library  
Men's Dormitory, University of Minnesota  
Marshall Swimming Pool and Bath House  
Moose Lake State Hospital  
Minneapolis and St. Paul Sewage Treatment Plant  
Dam 5-A, Mississippi River, Winona  
Oil House, Dora Lake Ranger Station

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These projects include a broad range of architectural styles, represented by the Bovey Village Hall, which was designed in the Baroque Revival Style, the Dora Lake Oil House, a log structure designed in the Rustic Style, the Minneapolis Armory and the Ely Community Building, both designed in the Moderne Style, and a Men's Dormitory at the University of Minnesota, designed in the Colonial Revival Style. This diversity was typical of PWA projects nationwide. This occurred because the PWA did not judge the architectural style of a building, only the soundness and feasibility of construction. This policy is clearly defined in the following statement by the PWA:

The PWA does not design any buildings or projects. It does not write the specifications or make any drawings. The character of architecture, the materials to be used and the type of construction are left entirely to the private architects and engineers employed.....The PWA acts somewhat in the nature of a bank or a large building and loan association. The engineer sent to a project as an inspector is there for the purpose of seeing that the project is constructed in accordance with the owner's plans and specifications.....He also ascertains the policies of the Government, chiefly concerning fair and adequate competition in the purchase of materials and labor, are properly adhered to by the contractors and everyone concerned. The PWA does not undertake at any time to assume any responsibility for, or to make any changes in design or specifications unless it may be obvious that the plans are technically or economically unsound.

Thus, the Public Works Administration essentially allowed the architectural styles of the day to continue to develop. However, it does appear that the standards and requirements of the PWA resulted in a noticeable improvement in the quality of construction and the safety of the resulting buildings and structures. [15]

Federal buildings, in particular, were often decorated with sculpture or mural paintings. The Section of Painting and Sculpture, later called the Section of Fine Arts, was a program administered by the Treasury Department. It obtained painting and

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sculpture to decorate new federal buildings, largely post offices and courthouses, by anonymous competitions. The program began in October 1934 and ended in 1943. Approximately, 1,400 contracts were awarded at a cost of about \$2,571.00. [16] The artwork reflected a realistic, regional style and was notable for the depiction of historical events and activities associated with the communities in which they were located. The subject matter could typically be described as the American scene in all its phases.

By 1939 the Public Works Administration had allotted funds through grants and loans to over 34,500 projects and helped to bring into the economy nearly 7 billion dollars in new construction costs. [17] In 1933 the PWA accounted for 33% of all construction in the United States, it averaged nearly 140,000 workers each year, and indirectly created more than 600,000 other jobs. [18] There were only two counties in the entire United States which did not benefit from a project sponsored by the Public Works Administration. All told, the Public Works Administration sponsored 666 federal and non-federal projects in Minnesota. The PWA provided a total of \$46,460,445 in grant and loans which resulted in 101,196,000 man hours in direct and indirect employment for the state. [19] The Public Works Administration pioneered the policy of direct federal allotments to municipal government, it initiated the federal housing program, and it sponsored projects of high quality construction which are still in use today. [20]

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**II. THE CIVILIAN CONSERVATION CORPS**

On March 21, 1933, just shortly after he took the oath of office as the 32nd President of the United States, Franklin D. Roosevelt presented a message to Congress on the topic of unemployment relief. His proposal was prompted by the Great Depression, when unemployment rose from just over 3% of the civilian work force in 1929 to over 25% in 1933. Not only were many young people unemployed, but approximately 30% of those working had only part time jobs. [21] Roosevelt suggested a prompt plan to enroll unemployed persons in public employment. He stated:

.....I have proposed to create a civilian conservation corps to be used in simple work, not interfering with the normal employment, and confining itself to forestry, the prevention of soil erosion, flood control, and similar projects.....The type of work is of definite, practical value, not only through the prevention of great financial loss, but also as a means of creating future national wealth.....  
Control of such work can be carried on by executing machinery of the Departments of Labor, Agriculture, War and Interior. The enterprise will....conserve our precious natural resources and more important will be the moral and spiritual gains of such work.

Roosevelt's attempt to conserve both human and natural resources was an extension of his own personal philosophy. His first appointment as a New York State Senator was as chairman of the State's Committee on Forest, Fish and Game. In that position he was able to spearhead the passage of the first New York legislation on supervised forestry. While Governor, he encouraged the state legislature to pass laws to aid in county and state reforestation. Public works projects were also created for the unemployed. [22]

Congress quickly responded to Roosevelt's proposal and on March 31, 1933 Executive Order 6106, Relief of Unemployment through the

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Performance of Useful Public Works, was passed by Congress. One of the components of the legislation established Emergency Conservation Work, which was immediately referred to as the Civilian Conservation Corps, although not officially designated as such until 1937.

Upon signing the bill, Roosevelt indicated he would like the program operational within just two weeks. A meeting was held with representatives from the Departments of War, Labor, Interior, and Agriculture to discuss the implementation of the legislation and the duties of each agency. As part of this cooperative effort, the Department of Labor was to initiate a nationwide recruiting program, the Army was to condition and transfer enrollees as well as operate and supervise work camps, and the Park Service and Forest Service, known as the technical services, were responsible for the actual work projects, technical planning and execution, and supervision of the work force. [23]

Enrollees had to be unemployed single men between the ages of 18 and 25. United States citizenship was required as well as sound physical fitness, and each person selected had to demonstrate need. A limited number of skilled local men known as locally experienced men or LEMs could be hired as well. For these men, the age and martial stipulations were waived. The bulk of the work force, however, was to be taken from the unemployed in large urban centers. Enrollment regulations were later relaxed in order to include American Indians and veterans of World War I. Enlistment was guaranteed for a 6 month period with a two year maximum. In return, each enrollee received food, clothing, shelter, and an allowance of \$30. per month, although it was required that \$25. be returned to their families. [24]

On April 7, 1933 the first CCC camp (Camp Roosevelt) was opened near Luray, Virginia. By September 1933, there were 1,520 CCC camps in operation with a total enrollment of 248,740, with each camp typically containing 200 men. [25] This manpower offered the U.S. Forest Service and the National Park Service the means to expand and develop state and national forests as well as national, state, county and metropolitan parks.

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In Minnesota, CCC enrollees were sent to the state-wide headquarters at Fort Snelling, later known as the Head Quarters Company, Minnesota District, which was in fact the 7th Army Corps. Here they received clothing and supplies and were sent on to the camps. In 1937 Grand Rapids replaced Fort Snelling as the state headquarters. By August 1933 there were 12,200 men employed in 61 camps throughout Minnesota. These camps were divided into the following types:

U.S. National Forests	24
State Forests	24
State Parks	3
Private Land or Forests	1
Erosion and Flood Control	9 [26]

The majority of the camps were located in northern Minnesota in the Superior and Chippewa National Forests. Eventually, a total of 49 camps were placed in operation. These included the following camps which were identified by a prefix "F" signifying a federal camp and followed by the individual camp number:

<u>Camp Number</u>	<u>Camp Name</u>	<u>Post Office</u>
F-1	Halfway	Ely
F-2	Gegoka	Ely
F-3	Wanless	Schroeder
F-4	Cascade (Devil's Lake)	Grand Marais
F-5	Gunflint	Grand Marais
F-6	Northern Light	Grand Marais
F-7	Fenske (Spring Creek)	Ely
F-8	Portage River	Ely
F-9	Cold Springs	Ely
F-10	Sawbill	Tofte
F-11	Caribou	Tofte
F-12	Pike Bay	Cass Lake
F-13	Bena	Bena
F-14	Cut Foot Sioux	Deer River
F-15	Winnibigoshish	Bena

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F-16	Dunnigan	Ely
F-17	Isabella	Ely
F-19	Temperance (Negro Camp)	Tofte
F-20	Good Harbor	Grand Marais
F-21	Bena (Engineers Co.)	Bena
F-22	Schley	Schley
F-23	Burns Lake	Cass Lake
F-24	Sand Lake	Britt
F-25	Luna Lake	Chisholm
F-26	Sand Lake	Deer River
F-27	Inger	Deer River
F-28	Big Lake	Cass Lake
F-29	Angora	Cook
F-30	Big Rice Lake	Virginia
F-32	Mack	Mack
F-34	Day Lake	Grand Rapids
F-35	Stokes	Grand Rapids
F-36	Squaw Lake	Squaw Lake
F-41	Poplar Lake	Grand Marais
F-42	?	Cass Lake
F-43	Cross River	Grand Marais
F-44	Fernberg	Ely
F-46	Remer	Remer
F-47	Longville	Longville
F-48	Walker	Walker
F-49	Boy River	Boy River
F-50	Rabideau	Blackduck
F-51	Wagner Lake	Northome
F-52	Partridge River	Aurora
F-53	Spruce Lake	Two Harbors
F-54	Baptism Camp	Ely
F-55	Sea Gull	Grand Marais
F-56	Vermilion	Tower
F-57	?	Ely [27]

A total of 22 CCC camps were established in state and municipal parks, and a Recreational Demonstration Area, although the camp at Beaver Creek Valley State Park was never actually placed in operation. These camps were responsible for the development of recreational facilities and the construction of hundreds of Rustic



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Style buildings. (See Minnesota State Park CCC/WPA/Rustic Style Historic Resources Multiple Property Documentation Form) These included the following camps which were identified by a prefix "SP" signifying a state park camp (with the exception of NP-1 which identified the St. Croix Recreational Demonstration Area project) and followed by the individual camp number:

<u>Camp Number</u>	<u>Name of Area</u>
NP-1	St. Croix RDA
SP-1	Itasca State Park
SP-2	Jay Cooke State Park
SP-3	Scenic State Park
SP-4	Whitewater State Park
SP-5	Gooseberry Falls State Park
SP-6	St. Croix RDA
SP-7	Sibley State Park
SP-8	Glenwood Municipal Park
SP-9	Whitewater State Park
SP-10	Gooseberry Falls State Park
SP-11	Camden State Park
SP-12	Fort Ridgely Memorial State Park
SP-14	Cottonwood River State Park
SP-17	Lake Vadnais Metropolitan Park
SP-19	Itasca State Park
SP-20	Beaver Creek Valley State Park
SP-21	Jay Cooke State Park [28]

However, this study is primarily concerned with the activities of the Civilian Conservation Corps in areas other than state parks and national forests, such as lands under the jurisdiction of the Minnesota Department of Conservation, including the Division of Forestry, the Division of Drainage and Waters, and the Minnesota Department of Highways.

A total of 31 CCC camps were considered state camps and were typically located in state forests. These camps still remained under the technical guidance of the U.S. Forest Service but they operated in cooperation of the Division of Forestry or the

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Division of Drainage and Waters within the Minnesota Department of Conservation. This division had previously been known as the Division of Forestry and Fire Prevention, yet, until the Depression Era, its activities had remained rather limited in scope. In 1931, for example, the total budget for the division was \$367,458.81. However, during fiscal years 1933-34, total emergency expenditures for operations in state forest camps totaled \$5,151,922. [29]

When federal assistance first became available to Minnesota, no state forests had been established, although there were a number of preserves. As a result, the 1933 legislation enacted Chapter 419 and created thirteen state forests and defined their boundaries. This gave the Department of Conservation the only legal grounds on which it could justify the request for the establishment of Emergency Conservation Work (CCC) camps within the state. By the end of 1933, CCC camps had been established in at least 12 of the original 13 state forests. These state forests are listed below along with the accomplishments of the Civilian Conservation Corps during fiscal years 1933-34:

Beltrami Island - Three U.S. Forest Service Emergency Conservation Work (CCC) State Forest camps operated within the Beltrami Island State Forest during the first six month enrollment period. Forty-four miles of telephone lines and 68 miles of truck trails were constructed, 56 miles of roadside were cleared, 2.1 miles of fire break were built, and 12.5 miles of lineal surveys were completed. Fire hazard reduction covered 1,438 acres. Two hundred acres were covered by timber surveys and sixty acres of forest stand improvement were completed. Five buildings were constructed and the equivalent of 8,976 man-days were spent on fire fighting.

Cloquet Valley - One U.S. Forest Service ECW State Forest camp was operated within the Cloquet Valley State Forest through the first four enrollment periods. Sixty-nine miles of telephone lines were built as well as 33.9 miles of truck trails. Two buildings were also constructed. Additional projects included 75 miles of lineal surveys, 6.5 miles of

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roadside cleanup, 4,618.5 acres of fire hazard reduction, 364 acres of forest stand improvement, and 8,170 acres of timber surveys. 504 bushels of seeds for nursery plantings were collected. Blister rust control was extended to 1,962.5 acres and the equivalent of 4,694.5 man-days were spent on fire fighting.

Finland - One U.S. Forest Service ECW State Forest camp was operated within the Finland State Forest during all four enrollment periods. The camp constructed 8.5 miles of truck trails, improved 15 acres of camp grounds, planted 56 acres, collected 327 bushels of seed, completed 5,288 acres of timber surveys, finished 51.9 miles of roadside cleanup, and completed 9,815 acres of fire hazard reduction. Six buildings were constructed, 54 lineal miles of surveys run, blister rust control extended to 162 acres and forest stand improvement covered 62 acres. The equivalent of 1,458 man-days were spend on fire fighting.

Fon du Lac - One U.S. Forest Service ECW State Forest camp was in operation within the Fon Du Lac State Forest during the first four enrollment period. 6.1 miles of telephone lines were constructed, 22.7 miles of truck trails were built, and one building was constructed. Additional projects included 60 miles of fire break construction, 689.7 acres of hazard reduction, 33.9 miles of roadside cleanup, and 399.8 acres of forest stand improvement. One lookout tower was built, 368.5 acres were planted, 85 bushels of seed were collected, and 817.5 acres were covered by blister rust control. Timber surveys covered 78,217.5 acres and 180 miles of lineal surveys were completed. Nursery work consumed 458 days and fire fighting required 1,149 man-days.

Foot Hills - One U.S. Forest Service ECW State Forest camp operated within the Foot Hills State Forest during the first enrollment period and constructed 2.1 miles of truck trails, erected three buildings, completed 131 acres of forest stand improvement and 20.5 acres of fire hazard reduction. Fire fighting required 931 days and nursery work occupied 1,026 man-days. Thirty miles of lineal surveys were completed.

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George Washington - Four U.S. Forest Service ECW State Forest camps were operated within the George Washington Memorial State Forest for a total of twelve six month enrollment periods. These camps constructed 35 miles of telephone lines, built 61.5 miles of truck trails, and completed two miles of fire breaks. Additional projects included 954.5 acres of fire hazard reduction, 35 miles of roadside cleanup, 1,848 acres of forest stand improvement, 9,678 of blister rust control, and 13,320 acres of timber surveys. Fifteen buildings were constructed. Nursery work required 510 days and fire fighting occupied 5,488 man-days. 712 acres were planted and 15.4 acres of camp grounds were improved. Seed collection yielded 441 bushels and lineal surveys covered 105 miles.

Grand Portage - Three U.S. Forest Service ECW State Forest camps operated for a total of seven six month enrollment periods. Projects included 18.5 miles of telephone lines, 21.2 miles of truck trails, the construction of two buildings and one lookout tower, 28.9 miles of roadside clean-up, 59.2 acres of fire hazard reduction, and 222 acres of forest stand improvement. 113 acres were planted. Six miles of lineal surveys were completed and fire fighting occupied 2,109 man-days.

Kabetogama - Three U.S. Forest Service ECW State Forest camps operated in the Kabetogama State Forest for a total of ten six month enrollment periods. Construction included 129.5 miles of telephone lines, 4 lookout towers, 5 buildings, and 18.6 miles of truck trails. Additional projects included 4,040 acres of fire hazard reduction, 3,587.4 acres of forest stand improvement, 250.3 acres of planting, 8,329.7 acres of timber surveys, and 77 acres of camp ground improvement. Twenty miles of roadside clean-up, 111.5 miles of lineal surveys, and the collection of 148 bushels of seed were also completed. Nursery work occupied 788 days and fire fighting required 2,766 man-days.

Land O'Lakes - No information is available for this state forest.

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Pine Island - Three U.S. Forest Service ECW State Forest camps operated within the Pine Island State Forest for a total of six six month enrollment periods. Projects included the construction of 55.5 miles of telephone lines, 21 miles of truck trails, ten buildings, and 48.5 miles of fire break. Hazard reduction was extended to 255 acres, 36.7 miles of roadside clean-up was completed, 3,420 acres of forest stands were improved, 52 acres were planted, 320 acres of blister rust control was completed, 3,360 acres of timber surveys were conducted, and 9.5 acres of camp grounds were improved. Fire fighting occupied 10,605 man-days and 18 miles of lineal surveys were completed.

Savanna - One U.S. Forest Service ECW State Forest camp operated within the Savanna State Forest during one six month enrollment period. Construction included 8 miles of truck trails, 2 buildings, and 2 lookout towers. Fire hazard reduction was extended to 42 acres, 32 acres of roadside clean-up was completed, and 25.9 acres were planted. Fire fighting required 795 man-days.

Third River - One U.S. Forest Service ECW State Forest camp operated with the Third River State Forest during four six-month enrollment periods. Construction included 80.2 miles of telephone lines, 15.8 miles truck trails, 8 miles of fire break, one lookout tower, and six buildings. Fire hazard reduction was extended to 1,410 acres, 25.2 miles of roadside clean-up was completed, 701.5 acres of forest stands were improved, and 629.2 acres of blister rust control was completed. Timber surveys covered 7,720 acres. Eleven acres of camp grounds were improved, 54.5 acres were planted, and 10.5 miles lineal surveys were run. 100 bushels of seed were collected and fire fighting required 3,410 man-days.

White Earth - Four U.S. Forest Service ECW State Forest camps operated within the White Earth State Forest for a total of eleven six-month enrollment periods. Construction included 117.8 miles of telephone lines, 13.3 miles of fire breaks, 169.3 miles of truck trails, three buildings, and two lookout towers. Hazard reduction covered 120 acres, 50.6 miles of roadside clean-up were completed, 1,943.5 acres of forest

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stands were improved, 1,682 acres of blister rust control was completed, and timber surveys were conducted on 14,880 acres. Ten man-days were spend on nursery work and 2,991 man-days were required for fire fighting. Lineal surveys covered 58.9 miles. [30]

A total of 31 state camps were eventually placed in operation. These included the following camps which were identified by a prefix "S" signifying a state camp and followed by the individual camp number:

<u>Camp Number</u>	<u>Camp Name</u>	<u>Post Office</u>
S-51	Brimson	Brimson
S-52	Cusson	Orr
S-53	Side Lake	Side Lake
S-54	Owen Lake	Coleraine
S-56	?	Warroad
S-57	Lovelis	Park Rapids
S-58	Elbo Lake	Arago
S-59	Third River	Grand Marais
S-62	Finland	Finland
S-70	Itasca State Park	Douglas Lodge
S-76	?	Nisswa
S-79	Big Lake	Cloquet
S-81	Kabetogama Lake	Ray
S-83	?	Big Falls
S-94	?	Orr
S-95	Deer Lake	Effie
S-97	Outing	Remer
S-98	Wilton	Bemidji
S-99	?	Hines
S-100	?	Remer
S-101	?	Walker
S-102	Boy River	Boy River
S-134	?	Nevis
S-135	?	Onamia
S-136	?	Sebeka
S-140	?	Sandstone

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S-141	?	Bagley
S-142	?	Osage
S-143	?	Big Falls
S-144	Badora	Akeley [31]

An additional 14 camps were operated in cooperation with the Soil Conservation Service and the Division of Drainage and Waters of the Conservation Department. All but one of these camps were located in southeastern Minnesota and were involved in drought and erosion control. These included the following camps which were identified by a prefix "SCS", signifying a Soil Conservation Service camp, and followed by the individual camp number:

<u>Camp Number</u>	<u>Post Office</u>
SCS-1	Valley
SCS-2 (PE-88)	Caledonia
SCS-3	Zumbrota
SCS-4 (PE-89)	Houston
SCS-7 (PE-91)	Lanesboro
SCS-9 (PE-85)	Red Wing
SCS-10	Waterville
SCS-11 (PE-87)	Lewiston
SCS-12 (PE-93)	Rochester
SCS-13 (PE-96)	Plainville
SCS-14 (PE-92)	Chatfield
SCS-15	Rollingstone
SCS-16 (PE-86)	Lake City
Indian CCC Camp	Grand Portage [32]

When the CCC came to an end in 1942 after nine years of operation, the Department of Conservation reported that 184 buildings and structures had been built by the state CCC camps in Minnesota (this excludes federal camps as well as state park camps), typically at ranger stations and state forest recreational areas. The buildings and structures included 66 water towers, 35 water conservation dams, 47 warehouses, 9 offices, 56 cabins, 10 garages, 2 pump houses, 6 bath houses, a fish hatchery building, 1

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machine shed, 2 bunk houses, 1 supply building, 3 seed extraction plants, 1 speeder house, 1 refectory, 1 cold storage plant, 1 sprinkler system, 1 well shelter, 23 latrines, 1 boat house, 8 ice houses, 8 oil houses, 1 camp ground shelter, and 1 barn. [33]

Four additional CCC camps were sponsored by the Minnesota Department of Highways under the technical supervision of the National Park Service. These camps were identified by the same prefix "SP" as were the state park camps since the Park Service administered both programs with the same technical and supervisory staff. These include the following camps:

<u>Camp Number</u>	<u>Name of Area</u>
SP-13	Spruce Creek Highway Wayside
SP-15	Mille Lacs Lake Highway Wayside
SP-16	Leech Lake Wayside Park
SP-18	Lakeshore Wayside Park

The Minnesota Department of Highways had long recognized the transportation needs of the state's industrial, commercial, and private vehicular traffic. Yet, the social and recreational use of highways was an issue closely associated with the Depression Era. To address this need, the Department of Highways maintained a Roadside Improvement Division whose principal objective was to increase the recreational qualities and enjoyment of the state's highways. Yet, "roadside improvement" also included incorporating landscape design in the construction of the modern trunk highways. This was evidenced by "streamlined" cross-sections, the conservation of existing timber on the right-of-way beyond construction stakes, and planting for erosion control and ground cover. Aside from furnishing a public route between designated points for the greatest convenience of users, the basic consideration in determining the location of new highways and the realignment of old locations were safety, construction and maintenance costs, providing facilities for the pleasure and convenience of the public, and the preservation of the character of the natural landscape through which they pass. [34]



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On all trunk highway allotments to Minnesota by the federal government, it was mandatory for at least one percent of these funds to be expended for roadside development projects. Roadside development or improvement consisted not only of grading, seeding, sodding, and planting operations, but also the elimination of old construction scars, the construction of roadside parking areas and picnic grounds, the construction of stone concourses and overlooks to take advantage of panoramic views, the landscape improvement of bridge approaches and the approaches to cities and towns, the development of natural springs along the roadsides, and the construction of historic markers. Design work was completed by the Minnesota Central Design Office of the National Park Service with the assistance of consulting local landscape architects such as A.R. Nicols. The CCC constructed highway wayside projects included the following:

Spruce Creek Highway Wayside - Also known as the Cascade River Wayside, this area originally included 2,965 acres which had been acquired by the Minnesota Department of Highways in 1934 for utilitarian purposes and to protect a particularly beautiful section of lakeshore drive near the mouth of the picturesque Cascade River. A highway concourse was constructed adjacent to Lake Superior along the mouth of the Cascade River. Foot trails were built along both sides of the river gorge leading from the concourse and continuing one mile up river to a rustic foot bridge. A public area was also built about 500 feet east of the concourse. According to U.W. Hella, who supervised the development, the Cascade project was said to be one of the first of its kind in the nation. It served as a demonstration project of how natural rock outcroppings might best be accommodated within the highway backslopes. [35]

Leech Lake Highway Wayside - Little is known of the activities of this highway wayside project. It operated for one enrollment period for a total of 6 months. This camp may have been responsible for the construction of a stone constructed overlook along the south shore of the lake near Whipholt.

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Lakeshore Wayside Park - This project was located along Lake Superior near the Knife River. Several waysides were constructed including an impressive overlook built with native stone, located just south of Two Harbors.

Mille Lacs Lake Highway Wayside - In 1935-36 the Department of Highways acquired 53 acres in several tracts in or near the town of Garrison along U.S. Highway 169, an important recreational and commercial route. Much of the land is located on Mille Lacs Lake, one of the most popular lakes in Minnesota. The most spectacular development was an impressive concourse and overlook in Garrison. In another area, a shelter and picnic facilities were developed. Highway 169 was also relocated in order to place the picnic area on the same side of the pavement as the lake. An additional overlook was located on a nearby lake and at least three stone-faced highway bridges were built. Architectural plans, which were never executed, were completed for at least two other developments along the lake.

A total of 84,000 Minnesota enrollees participated in the Civilian Conservation Corps, and 85 million dollars were spent within the state. The impact on the state was extraordinary and benefits are still felt today. For nine years, the CCC program gave the state millions of man days of conservation labor, advancing the state's forestry, park, and soil conservation projects ahead by decades. The program allowed trained foresters, in both the state and national programs, to be relieved of forest maintenance and fire protection duties and allowed the implementation of forest and wildlife studies and management plans.

The importance of the CCC in Minnesota is illustrated by their accomplishments. The CCC provided 3.5 million man days of conservation labor for the U.S. Forest Service, and the Divisions of Forestry, Drainage and Waters, and State Parks, within the Minnesota Conservation Department. Of that figure, 123,000 man days were invested in forest fire fighting; 11,800 in manning lookout towers; and 6,400 in fire prevention work. CCC crews built 3,330 miles of firebreaks; 1,635 miles of forestry telephone lines, and 3,900 miles of forestry roadways. They inventoried

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3,739,500 acres of forest lands and provided the first comprehensive forest inventory of the state; collected 9,000 bushels of seed cones, and planted 124,000,000 trees. Utilizing the CCC labor, the State Legislature created 35 new state parks and forests which the CCC inventoried and improved. Other accomplishments included soil erosion control and stream improvements, the construction of new steel fire towers, the construction of forestry stations, state and federal park and campground construction and improvements, picnic ground construction, dam road and culvert development, game management programs, general timber stand improvement, lake depth and lake shore surveys, experiments in rodent control, and the commercial adaptability of Minnesota wild foods.

The accomplishments of the Civilian Conservation Corps are still with us fifty years after their completion. Hundreds of Rustic Style buildings were constructed throughout Minnesota in state and national parks and forests. Plantations planted by the CCC have been thinned several times and are now reaching full marketable yields. Without the efforts of the CCC in forest fire prevention, fires would have been much larger and more damaging and the forest vegetation of today might have been much different. [36]

These efforts also represent an important period in the state-wide historic context of Northern Minnesota Lumbering 1870-1930s. Through the financial assistance of the federal government and the manpower of the CCC, Minnesota was able to initiate the first large-scale, state-wide attempt to manage the state's natural resources, and to repair the considerable damage which had occurred in earlier years. Not only had large areas of land been destroyed through disastrous forest fires, but sections of cut over land were being returned to the state, tax forfeited, after the timber had been harvested. Because these lands were also ill-suited for agriculture, the problem of idle lands had become an emergency.

A noted Minnesota conservationist, Ernest C. Oberholtzer, envisioned the potential of the Civilian Conservation Corps when he commented as early as 1931 in Minnesota Municipalities of the "wreckage of the old regime" and how "our forest problem lends itself better than any other to the solution of slack labor." The

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CCC tree planting program attempted to produce forests on lands which were tax delinquent and non-productive. Planting concentrated in "burnt over and cut over lands in Hubbard, Beltrami, Koochiching, Itasca, St. Louis, Carlton, Cook, Lake of the Woods, and Clearwater Counties." [37] These forest lands are just now becoming ready for harvest, after having been returned to their original condition through the efforts of the Civilian Conservation Corps.

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**III. THE STATE AND FEDERAL EMERGENCY RELIEF ADMINISTRATIONS**

The Great Depression of 1929 found the United States unprepared to meet the wide spread problem of relief. By 1930 almost 4 million people were unemployed; the number rose to almost 7 million by the end of the year, and this number doubled by the early part of 1933. [38] Yet, public relief for the destitute was still generally administered under state poor laws designed to care for a small number of relief cases. In the late 18th and early 19th centuries, when state poor laws were established, the relief problem centered on unemployables, such as the aged, handicapped, the insane, and orphans. Relatives were considered to have the primary responsibility for these individuals and only where family assistance could not be secured, and private charity was unavailable, was relief given, and generally only by the local community.

The early poor laws of the various states were based upon English poor laws of the Elizabethan era and they included many repressive features which were intended to discourage the needy from applying for public relief. A "pauper's oath" was usually required and relief was kept at a bare minimum. Efforts to reduce the harshness of these laws continued throughout the 19th and early 20th centuries. The care afforded to those placed in poor houses improved and the wide spread practice of housing homeless children, the aged, the insane, and even vagrants in the same institution was curbed. The development of outdoor relief, or home relief, represented another important effort at the turn of the century. Home relief allowed certain needy persons to receive relief in their own homes rather than being institutionalized, although relief was usually limited to small donations of food, clothing, and fuel. The development of "categorical relief" recognized that certain groups of needy persons were entitled to receive better care than was given under the poor laws. By 1929 44 states had passed veterans relief laws, 43 states had enacted legislation providing aid to dependent children in their homes, 22 states had laws for aid for the blind, and 10 states had laws for assistance to the needy aged.

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Yet, up until 1929, although improvements had been made in the methods of furnishing relief to unemployables, little had been done toward developing any system of relief capable of dealing with destitution arising from unemployment. At first, because relief had traditionally been a local responsibility, local agencies were called upon to provide for unemployed workers and their families. However, the inability of local governments to finance large scale programs of unemployment relief soon forced state governments to provide assistance. Emergency relief administrations were set up in four states in 1931, and in half the states by the end of 1932. But the states were unable to meet the increasing demand for relief and federal aid was requested. The first step taken by the federal government was the appointment of the President's Emergency Committee for Employment in late 1930. The committee attempted to stimulate state and local relief as well as public construction. In 1931 the committee's work was assumed by the President's Organization on Unemployment Relief, yet the efforts of both committees was rather limited since neither had been provided with any federal funds.

The first significant departure from the concept of local responsibility for relief was the adoption of the Emergency Relief and Construction Act of 1932 which made \$300,000,000 in federal funds available for advances to states and local governments. The act provided that any funds received could be repaid with deductions from future Federal Highway Aid appropriations beginning with fiscal year 1935, although the funds were ultimately considered an outright grant. Applications for an advance were made to the Reconstruction Finance Agency and a governor had to certify that his state could not meet its relief needs from its own resources. [39]

When the RFC ended its activities on May 29, 1933 under Title I of the Emergency and Construction Act, nearly all of the states had received advances. This funding allowed relief programs to continue in some of the most destitute areas of the country, but by 1933 many local governments were nearly bankrupt and few states were able to give substantial aid to local relief activities. There was no longer any question of the necessity of federal aid for unemployment relief. On May 12, 1933 the Federal Emergency Relief Administration was created and an extensive federal

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bureaucracy was organized to administer the program. [See Exhibit II] A total of \$500,000,000 was made available for grants to the states for emergency relief purposes. By the end of 1933, grants made been made to all of the states. [40]

In Minnesota, local property taxation was the only source of funds for financing relief prior to September 29, 1932. The state had not accepted any responsibility for unemployment relief, and except for the state's three largest political subdivision, the City of Minneapolis, Ramsey County, and St. Louis County, the administration of relief had been left entirely in the hands of local officials. Fifty counties were operating under the so called county system of relief in which the county was responsible for providing the necessary funds for financing relief through a uniform levy on the entire taxable valuation of the county. Thirty-seven counties were operating under the township system in which the governing body of each city, village, and township was responsible for financing and administering relief within its boundaries. [41]

Once the Emergency Relief and Construction Act of 1932 was adopted, the Board of Public Welfare of St. Paul and Ramsey County and the St. Louis County Poor Commission indicated their interest in the possibility of obtaining funds. It also became clear that other political subdivisions, particularly in northern Minnesota, were unable to meet the demands of poor relief, let alone the growing need caused by the rapid increase in unemployment. These governmental units also had no facilities for preparing and presenting applications to the Reconstruction Finance Corporation and Governor Olson recognized that it would be necessary for the state to assume this responsibility for the various local political subdivisions. Morris B. Lambie, a Professor of Political Science at the University of Minnesota and the Executive Secretary of the League of Minnesota Municipalities, was appointed as the Minnesota Relief Administrator. The State Board of Control, headed by Mrs. Blanche LaDu, was designated as the agency which would assist in certifying the relief needs of those submitting applications and to formulate rules and regulations under which these funds were to be expended. Application forms and procedural instructions were sent to each county board of commissioners and to larger towns and cities, although technically

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all applications had to originate in a political subdivision no smaller than a county. The counties were informed that no applications would be approved unless the relief needs in a particular community were over and above the financial ability of the local unit of government. The county was required to prove that both its available funds and its credit were exhausted. [42]

Applications were received almost immediately from 18 rural counties, the City of St. Paul, Ramsey County, and St. Louis County. The following applications were approved by the RFC on October 19, 1932 for the full amount requested:

<u>Political Subdivision</u>	<u>Amount</u>
Aitkin County	\$ 9,570.00
Anoka County	11,500.00
Beltrami County	14,660.00
Carlton (City of Cloquet)	9,640.00
Cass County	6,900.00
Chippewa County	5,120.00
Cook County	6,500.00
Crow Wing County	1,540.00
Hubbard County	4,700.00
Isanti County	5,295.00
Itasca County	99,925.00
Kanabec County	3,350.00
Koochiching County	21,600.00
Lake County	12,345.00
Lake of the Woods County	9,095.00
Mahnomen County	9,225.00
Marshall County	3,750.00
Norman County	9,640.00
Ramsey County	137,072.00
St. Louis County	271,626.00
Total	\$653,053.00 [43]

When these funds were received, it was necessary to establish an organization to uniformly administer relief throughout the state. The State Board of Control proceeded to appoint a County Emergency Relief Committee in each county, however, the actual work of administering relief was placed in the hands of trained social



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workers or county relief workers. Bulletins were issued by the Minnesota Relief Administrator and the State Board of Control which described the principles under which the relief program was to function. Direct relief was defined as "relief to individuals or families to include food, clothing, shelter, fuel, household supplies, medical supplies and other necessities of life." Work relief was defined a relief to be paid in the form of relief orders for work under the following conditions:

1. That the recipients of work relief and the amounts given are both determined on the basis of actual need.
2. That funds for such relief are made available from those specifically allotted for relief purposes.
3. That the funds are used for worthwhile projects, which shall be determined and supervised by responsible officers of the county or local political subdivisions.
4. That projects could not otherwise be undertaken at the time or in the immediate future or financed out of available public revenues.
5. That the amount of work relief shall be no more than sufficient to provide direct relief for the family, after applying for these purposes the income of the family from other sources, and shall be in lieu of direct relief.
6. That all applicants shall be investigated and registered as provided for direct relief.
7. That work shall be permitted only to employable persons with physical capacity for the type of work granted.
8. That work relief projects shall not be for work to be done under contract.
9. That no money from the Emergency Relief Fund shall be used for work materials and supplies.

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10. That all work relief projects, on which relief workers are employed and paid, be relief orders from the Emergency Relief Funds (which) shall be approved by the County Emergency Relief Committee for the foregoing purposes. [44]

Work relief projects were encouraged by the Board of Control but no centralized supervision was provided. With the exception of a few projects conducted in cooperation with the State Department of Conservation and the State Highway Department, the entire responsibility for originating and supervising work relief projects was left to the local political subdivisions. Projects were not permitted for regular maintenance work or for any work which could be financed from other funds. In some instances, considerable pressure was brought to bear on local political subdivisions to require them to originate work relief projects, and possible projects were suggested, but there was no attempt to approve projects in the state office.

Subsequent applications to the RFC were approved as follows, but only a total of 28 political subdivisions received allotments:

<u>Date Granted</u>	<u>Amount</u>
December 1932	\$696,467.00
February 3, 1933	291,936.00
February 25, 1933	448,813.00
April 8, 1933	81,524.00
April 27, 1933	99,462.00
May 1, 1933	188,149.00
May 9, 1933	57,060.00 [45]

When it became apparent in the spring of 1933 that an additional federal appropriation would be necessary, Congress enacted the Federal Emergency Relief Act of 1933 which was approved by the President on May 12. This act created the Federal Emergency Relief Administration and provided for the appointment of Harry Hopkins as the Federal Emergency Relief Administrator. The agency received an appropriation of \$500,000,000 which would be made available to the states in the form of direct grants rather than loans. These grants were administered according to the two appropriating subdivisions of the Federal Emergency Relief Act:

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Subsection (b) of Section 4 provided that each state was entitled to receive grants equal to one-third of the funds expended by the state; and Subsection (c), the so called discretionary funds, which provided that the balance of the amount made available by the act could be granted to the states at the discretion of the Administrator upon proof of need by the applicant. This act differed significantly from the 1932 Act in providing direct grants rather than loans and may be viewed as a major step on the part of the federal government in definitely assuming part of the responsibility for providing relief. [46]

The Minnesota State Board of Control was approved as the State Emergency Relief Administration by Harry Hopkins and the county relief administrations created by the board were accepted as the local units of administration. Since the act provided that funds would be advanced based on past expenditures for relief, all states were instructed to certify their expenditures for the months of January, February, and March of 1933. The expenditures in Minnesota for those months totaled \$2,316,264.04 and the state accordingly received a grant for \$772,086.00. Almost immediately thereafter, expenditures for April, May, and June were certified and Minnesota received an additional grant of \$692,688.00. [47]

In contrast with the policies of the Reconstruction Finance Corporation, the FERA did not recognize individual political subdivisions and relied entirely on the discretion of the state administration to allocate the funds. However, states and localities were not free to spend FERA funds in any manner they saw fit. The states were required to follow certain federal regulations which were intended to achieve a gradual establishment of higher standards in relief practices. One of the most important goals of the FERA was to see that the relief given to persons in need was as adequate as possible. As one of the conditions of its grants, the FERA developed a general formula which local relief agencies were to use in determining the amount of relief for each case which received relief or work relief. The local relief agency first estimated the minimum monthly income upon which a family of a given size could subsist in that locality. The total estimated monthly income of the family was subtracted from this estimated budget and the local relief agency was to furnish the budgetary deficiency. The FERA also ruled that

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persons on work relief must be given cash. Cash was also suggested for those receiving direct relief, but no ruling was issued on this point. In reality, the amount of relief given to a family varied considerably throughout the country. Relief was adequate in some states while other states were unwilling or unable to adopt the required standards. However, during the period of FERA grants, the average amount of relief given monthly to each case for the country as a whole increased from \$14.13 in May 1933 to \$28.13 in January 1935. [48]

Other FERA regulations were designed to diversify the relief programs so that the appropriate kind of relief could be given to each group of needy person. Among those on relief were large number numbers of workers from cities, destitute farmers, the aged, mothers with dependent children, youths, and other special groups. The FERA sought to differentiate between the various relief groups and develop programs to fit their specific needs. A large scale direct relief program was operated for those who were unable to work, or for whom public work could not be provided. A rural rehabilitation program was created to assist some of the rural destitute. In addition, special programs such as transient relief, emergency education, and aid for college students were also provided. [49]

Although work programs had been in place prior to the establishment of the FERA, they often involved make-work type projects with little regard for the past experience of the relief workers. The FERA work program was intended to conserve the skills, work habits, and morale of the unemployed through work which was suited to their abilities and of value to their communities. With substantial aid from the FERA, state and local programs were gradually improved during the period from June through October 1933. However, large-scale unemployment still continued and the construction program operated by the newly created Public Works Administration was slow in getting under way. As a result, it was decided to supplement PWA and FERA activities by operating a program known as the Civil Works Administration, which would provide useful employment during the winter of 1933-34.

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On November 8, 1933, the State Board of Control received a telegram from Harry Hopkins, the CWA Administrator, designating the board as the State Civil Works Administration and each county relief administration as the County Civil Works Administration. Any local political subdivision of the state, including cities, villages, townships, school districts, and county governments could submit work projects for consideration. In addition, any department of the state government, and both state and local CWA offices, were also authorized to originate work programs. Projects were submitted almost immediately by various local political subdivisions throughout the state in response to a request for proposals by Governor Floyd Olson, which was made during a general meeting held at the State Capitol. However, at the time the Civil Works Administration was established, FERA funds were being expended in counties only on a decentralized basis, and there had been no emphasis placed on a supervised work program. As a result, the staff and headquarters of the SERA were comparatively small. It was therefore necessary to strengthen and enlarge the staff of the SERA which was to act as the staff of the State Civil Works Administration. Instructions were received from Washington to establish a uniform accounting system, appoint an engineering staff, select and train a purchasing agent, and to place in operation all the various departments which are necessary for the administration of a public works program. L.P. Zimmerman, a former employee of the State Highway Department, was designated as the State Engineer for the State Civil Works Administration. The State Engineer, along with a staff of eight regional engineers, supervised the actual operation of the projects, furnished technical advice on difficult engineering problems, and was generally responsible for the actual work projects. [50]

When the Civil Works Administration ended on March 31, 1934, the FERA established a new work program to take its place. In fact, this merely returned the responsibility for the work program back into the hands of the State Emergency Relief Administration in a legal sense. By this time an elaborate and well organized bureaucracy had been developed to administer the various programs of the SERA. [See Exhibit III] As of October 1934, the state administrative office of the SERA included the following divisions and directors:

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Governor Floyd B. Olson.....Administrator  
L.P. Zimmerman.....Acting Administrator  
Benjamin E. Youngdahl.....Director of Social Service  
Nathan Harris.....Director of Work Division  
Oscar W. Behrens.....Director of Transient Division  
C.T. Fredrickson.....Director of Finance  
Dr. R.W. Murchie.....Director of Rural Rehabilitation

Each division functioned through district, county, and local units. The Work Division, for example, included a staff engineer in the central offices, 10 district engineers, and a engineer in each county. The five divisions of the State Emergency Relief Administration were responsible for the following functions:

Social Service Division - This division operated through the country relief workers and was responsible for carrying out a comprehensive program of investigating and certifying relief cases. The division also supervised the selection of CCC enrollees on behalf of the Department of Labor.

Finance Division - The Finance Division processed all payrolls and disbursements of federal and state funds. All purchases were made through the Finance Division, which ranged from stamps to complete transient camps capable of housing 400 men.

Rural Rehabilitation Division - This division operated rural work centers, water conservation projects, and educational programs. In 1934 aid was provided for 40,000 drouth victims, while 46,000 head of cattle were relocated to the northeastern part of the state where subsistence pasturage was available.

Transient Relief Division - The Transient Division of the Federal Emergency Relief Administration began to function in July 1933. Because many states and localities had long regarded transients as an unwelcome burden, the FERA agreed to pay all expenses associated with the program. The primary purpose of the transient program was to provide shelter, food, and clothing to this class of persons for whom no other unit of government would admit responsibility. Moreover, it was desired to reduce the aimless

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drift of people from one section of the country to another. Through a program of training and education, it was hoped to rehabilitate many of the transients so that they might be absorbed in the community where they were housed or returned to their place of legal residence equipped to regain a normal place in society. [51]

The State Board of Control organized a transient program which was approved by the FERA in November 1933. Registration centers were established in the state's five largest cities while in practically all other counties the county relief office was designated as a transient registration bureau. Families and homeless women were typically returned to their place of legal residence while two types of care were provided for transient men: out-camp and camp care. Out-camp care was provided through shelters such as the Salvation Army and missions for which the Transient Relief Division paid a per diem fee. The camp program was strongly emphasized in Minnesota and homeless men were usually moved from shelters to the camps. The men were expected to work six hours a day in return for food, lodging, clothing, and medical and dental care. They were also given a cash allowance of one dollar per week and extra hours could be arranged as well. Each camp maintained a long term work program which was generally organized in cooperation with the State Department of Conservation. The transient men were involved in the removal of fire hazards and constructing fire breaks, building lookout towers and ranger patrol stations, as well as the development of recreational facilities. Evaluated on the basis of 55 cents per hour, the work of the Transient Division in Minnesota's parks and forests would have cost the State Conservation Department approximately one million dollars up to June 30, 1934. As of this same date, the following 13 camps were in operation which housed approximately 2,200 men although total capacity was about 3,500: [See Exhibit IV]

<u>Camp Name</u>	<u>Nearest Town</u>	<u>Capacity</u>
Badoura	Akeley	20
Crystal Springs	Rochester	110
Elbow Lake	Ponsford	100
Happyland	Littlefork	150

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Headwaters	Itasca State Park	100
Independence	Duluth	250
Itasca	Itasca State Park	60
Medicine Lake	Minneapolis	1,000
Mendota	Mendota-Shakopee	950
Park Avenue	Big Falls	200
Perch Lake	Hibbing	300
Savanna	McGregor	140
Thistledew	Hibbing	125 [52]

Work Division - After the CWA expired, the new program was called the Emergency Relief Administration or ERA. The organization was similar to the CWA except that it was necessary to distinguish between relief and non-relief labor and much less money was available for the purchase of materials than during the prior program. The types of projects which could be undertaken were also limited by the types of labor available on relief in a given community. Work projects were initiated by ERA officials or by state, county, city, or other governmental units. All work was done on public property and local financial participation was required for most projects. As of October 1934, a total of 2,501 projects had been approved by the State Emergency Relief Administration. This represented a total expenditure of approximately \$17,600,000 which included funds of \$14,850,000 and local contributions of \$2,750.00. As of July 1934, the SERA case load included 112,812 families representing 489,014 persons. Of these, 36,773 families, or 162,258 persons, reported for work relief. In addition to family participation, there were 11,953 single persons in the program, of which 1,269 reported for work relief. [53]

Construction projects included highway work, public buildings (such as schools, town halls, and community buildings), bridges, sewers, utilities, recreational facilities, waterways, parks, and airports. A variety of conservation projects were also undertaken including the construction of dams and the diversion of water flow to restore former lakes and streams. Non-construction work projects included public welfare programs, educational activities, and the production of various goods for the unemployed. Typical construction related projects include the following:



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Long Prairie - remodel Todd County Courthouse  
Grey Eagle - town hall building  
Willmar - airport  
Princeton - city park  
Motley - 2,000 feet of sewer  
Gilbert - school repairs  
Duluth - auditorium and playroom at Fairmont School  
Foley - county work shop  
Rockville - school  
Duluth - zoo  
Browns Valley - community building  
Foley - bath house  
St. Paul - conservation building, state fairgrounds  
Willmar - auditorium  
Deerwood - auditorium  
St. Paul - bridge, Phalen Park  
Little Falls - building construction at Camp Ripley [54]

As of June 1934, the work projects typically associated with construction were classified as follows:

<u>Project Type</u>	<u>Number of Projects</u>	<u>Number Employed</u>
<u>Highways, Bridges</u>		
New	57	617
Repair/Maintenance	233	4,327
<u>Public Buildings</u>		
New	27	203
Repair/Maintenance	370	2,545
<u>Bridges</u>		
New	7	74
Repair/Maintenance	10	13
<u>Sewers</u>		
New	40	323
Repair/Maintenance	28	258

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<u>Utilities</u>		
New	44	85
Repair/Maintenance	26	186
<u>Recreational Facilities</u>		
New	26	240
Repair/Maintenance	3	1,743
<u>Parks, Airports</u>	106	1,594
<u>Miscellaneous</u>	9	811 [55]

The State Board of Control acted as the State Emergency Relief Administration until July 1934 when the program was organized as a separate agency. In January 1936 the legislature gave the SERA legal status and it began to operate as the State Relief Agency (SRA). However, at the end of 1935 the Federal Emergency Relief Administration was discontinued and the responsibility for direct relief was returned to the states and local units of government. This change in federal policy was based on the premise that the FERA had met the relief crisis of 1933 and that sufficient time had been provided for the states to plan appropriate relief programs. In addition, it was clear that federal policy intended to emphasize work rather than direct relief with respect to needy employables. The new works program was established in the spring of 1935 with the Works Progress Administration as the replacement for the work program of the State and Federal Emergency Relief Administrations. However, the State Relief Agency was required to certify to the WPA those persons who were eligible for employment under this new program. The impact of the reduction in federal funds for direct relief in Minnesota is shown in the following table which traces state, federal, and local expenditures of the State and Federal Emergency Relief Administrations:

<u>Date</u>	<u>Fund</u>	<u>Amount</u>	<u>Percent</u>
<u>May 1935</u>	Federal	\$4,498,505	88.8%
	State & Local	<u>569,541</u>	11.2%
		\$5,068,046	

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<u>November 1935</u>	Federal	\$1,015,342	44.7%
	State	458,539	20.2%
	Local	<u>799,785</u>	35.1%
		\$2,273,666	
 <u>February 1936</u>	Federal	\$95,882	6.6%
	State	755,071	51.8%
	Local	<u>606,402</u>	41.6%
		\$1,457,355	
 <u>July 1937</u>	Federal	\$16,653	1.8%
	State	346,377	36.1%
	Local	<u>595,344</u>	62.1%
		\$958,374 [56]	

Not only was unemployment decreasing, but many of those who had received relief or work relief from the SERA were now working for the Works Progress Administration. In April 1935, 20% of the state's population was on relief. This number had decreased to 7.6% by the end of 1935. [56] By the end of 1936, over 180 million dollars had been expended in Minnesota for direct and work relief by the State Relief Administration, the Works Progress Administration, the Old Age Assistance program, and the Civil Works Administration as itemized in the following table:.

<u>Program</u>	<u>Dates</u>	<u>Amount</u>
SRA	11/32-12/36	\$102,725,617
WPA	8/35-12/36	49,868,809
OAA	2/36-12/36	7,535,380
CWA	11/33-3/34	<u>20,671,440</u>
		\$180,801,246 [57]

The SRA continued until 1939 when the legislature created the Social Welfare Division of the Social Security Department and the

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responsibility for the administration and distribution of direct relief was transferred to this division. During its existence, the Federal Emergency Relief Administration provided federal funds totaling \$3,068,000,000 to state governments. These funds financed a major part of the total cost of relief to the unemployed and their families from May 1933 when the agency was created until the end of 1935. When the programs conducted by the emergency relief administrations reached their peak in January 1935, more than 20,000,000 persons, or about 16% of the total population of the United States, had received relief. [58]

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**IV. The Civil Works Administration**

The Civil Works Administration was established on November 9, 1933 by President Franklin Roosevelt. Executive Order 6420-B, listed below, officially created the agency.

Executive Order

Creation of the Federal Civil Works Administration

(1) I hereby establish a Federal Civil Works Administration and appoint as Administrator thereof the Federal Emergency Relief Administrator, as an agency to administer a program of public works as a part of, and to be included in, the comprehensive program under preparation by the Federal Emergency Administration of Public Works, which program shall be approved by the Federal Emergency Administrator of Public Works and shall be known as the "civil works program."

(2) The Federal Emergency Relief Administrator, as the head of the Federal Civil Works Administration, is authorized to construct, finance, or aid in the construction or financing of any public-works project included in the civil works program and to acquire by purchase any real or personal property in connection with the accomplishment of any such project and to lease any such property with or without the privilege of purchase.

(3) The said Administrator is further authorized to appoint without regard to the civil service laws or the Classification Act of 1923, as amended, and fix the compensation of such officers, experts, and employees, and prescribe their duties and authority and make such expenditures.....as may be necessary to carry out the purposes of the Federal Civil Works Administration and, with the consent of the municipality concerned, may utilize such State and local officers and employees as he may deem necessary.

(4) For purposes of this order, there is hereby allocated to the Federal Civil Works Administration the sum of \$400,000,000 out of the appropriation of \$3,300,000,000 authorized by section 220 of the National Industrial Recovery Act and made by the fourth Deficiency Act, fiscal year 1933, approved June 16, 1933. [59]

The Civil Works Administration (CWA) was established because existing New Deal measures such as the National Recovery Administration, the Civilian Conservation Corps, the Agricultural

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Adjustment Administration, and particularly the Public Works Administration, had failed to sustain the economic upswing which had appeared so promising in the summer of 1933. By November, only 251,851 men had received employment on PWA projects. Yet, approximately 10,076,000 people were out of work in October, an increase of eleven thousand over the September figures. [60] A new approach was needed, at least one which could be implemented during the winter months. Harry Hopkins, the Federal Emergency Relief Administrator, was placed in charge of the new program. He estimated that about 400 million people could be given jobs with the \$400 million which had been allocated to the CWA by the Public Works Administration. On November 10, the Washington CWA office sent telegrams to state agencies designating them as civil works organizations, and in most areas, appointing state, county, and city relief administrators as CWA officials. In fact, operating the CWA simply became an additional job. The message to the North Dakota Emergency Relief Administration was typical:

The State Emergency Relief Administration is hereby constituted the Civil Works Administration for the state of North Dakota with yourself as chairman. It will be the Federal Civil Works Administration. The present emergency relief committees in each county of your state are hereby constituted the Civil Works Administration for that county. [61]

In order to explain the new program to hundreds of relief administrators throughout the country, Hopkins invited governors, county officials, mayors, and relief administrators to a conference in Washington. Hopkins described how each state would be allotted federal money for approved projects and that quotas would be determined on the basis of population (75 percent) and relief load (25 percent). Meetings were held at the local level as well and applications were prepared for CWA projects, most of which received the immediate approval from the state administration. In addition, any existing state work relief projects were automatically shifted to the CWA. On the first payday, November 23, the CWA issued checks to 814,511 workers. [62]

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When the Civil Works Administration came to an end on March 31, 1934, a total of \$20,671.440 had been expended in Minnesota and approximately 1 billion dollars nationwide. Responsibility for work projects returned to the State Emergency Relief Administration. The following chronology highlights important dates for the CWA program:

November 9, 1933 - An Executive Order was issued creating the CWA and providing \$400,000,000 from the Public Works Administration for the new organization. The object of the Executive Order was to put 4,000,000,000 of the unemployed to work, 2,000,000 by December 1, 1933 and a total of 4,000,000 by January 15, 1934.

November 15, 1933 - A meeting of the governors, mayors and other officials was held at the Mayflower Hotel in Washington at which the Civil Works program was launched.

November 16-19, 1933 - All relief work beneficiaries and projects were transferred to the Civil Works Administration.

November 20, 1933 - A meeting was called by Mrs. Roosevelt at the White House to organize women's participation in the CWA program.

November 23, 1933 - The first payroll totaled \$7,873,350.

November 28, 1933 - The Civil Works Service was organized to assume activities such as education surveys, nursing, child hygiene, and social welfare of a service nature.

December 7, 1933 - 2,037,000 were employed on CWA projects.

January 18, 1934 - 4,040,000 were employed on CWA projects, this was the peak of CWA employment. The payroll reached a high point of of \$62,024,850.

February 15, 1934 - \$950,000,000 was appropriated by an Act of Congress for the Federal Emergency Relief Administration. \$450,000,000 of this sum, by a supplementary act of the same date, was made available for the continuation of the CWA.

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Typical CWA projects executed in Minnesota are listed below:

Jackson - storm sewer extension, \$5,900.  
Maynard - water main extension, sewer repair, water tank, \$1,854.  
Aitkin - village Hall improvements, \$2,000.  
Preston - electrical system, \$5,572.  
Duluth - repair and paint library buildings  
St. Cloud - construct granite safety walls  
Virginia - build stone entrance and several shelters at golf course  
Lanesboro - dam, flood control, \$3,340.  
Ely - build airport runway, \$13,000.  
Duluth - build auditoriums for school buildings  
Waseca Co. - build garages at Waldorf and Waseca  
St. Peter - city hall addition  
New Richland - bridge and water main construction  
Welcome - build gymnasium  
Crookston - sanatorium  
Ada - pavilion  
Willow River - city hall  
Gilbert - recreation field  
Bancroft - town hall  
Owatonna - fair buildings  
Walker - administration building and museum  
Polk Co. - rural school  
Bemidji - tourist information building [63]

As of January 1934, Frank M. Rarig Jr., the Minnesota CWA Director, announced that 84,500 people were employed on projects state-wide. Nineteen thousand were employed in Minneapolis alone. In February 1934, eight district engineers were appointed to maintain supervisory control over CWA projects. These engineers worked in an advisory capacity along with local highway engineers, who were usually the county CWA engineers as well. In fact, over 50% of the work by the CWA in the state involved street and highway repair.

The Civil Works Administration also funded the first art project sponsored by the federal government on a national scale. Known as the Public Works of Art Project (PWAP), the program was administered by the Treasury Department from December 1933 to June 1934 when the program was terminated. Approximately, 3,700 artists were paid \$35 to \$45 per week to produce murals and sculptures for public buildings. The program cost about \$1,312,000. [64]



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February 15, 1934 - An order was issued providing for the reduction in the number of CWA employees and anticipating the final termination of the organization on March 31, 1934.

March 31, 1934 - The CWA was terminated. [65]

The Civil Works Administration remained in existence a mere four and one half months. Yet, over 4,000,000 workers were employed who received minimum wages rather than relief payments. The CWA remains the first attempt by the federal government to give work to the unemployed instead of aiding the states in the problem of relief. It served as a precedent for later and larger federally sponsored work programs.

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**V. THE WORKS PROGRESS ADMINISTRATION**

The Works Progress Administration was established by Executive Order No. 7034, dated May 6, 1935. This action was taken by the President under the authority of the Emergency Relief Appropriation Act of 1935, approved April 8, 1935. The nearly \$5 billion authorized by the act was the greatest single appropriation in the history of the United States and \$1.4 billion of this funding was allocated to the WPA. [66] Both the WPA and the new social security system were intended to replace the emergency programs of the Federal Emergency Relief Administration with a program which distinguished between unemployment relief and other types of assistance. Direct relief for the aged, handicapped, and other unemployables was to be returned to the state and local governments. As originally designed, the WPA was to have two functions; first, it was to operate a nation-wide program of small useful projects designed to provide employment for needy employable workers, and secondly, it was responsible for coordinating the various activities of the "Works Program" as a whole. Four years later, in the President's Reorganization Act of 1939, and effective July 1, 1939, the Works Progress Administration was incorporated in the Federal Works Agency and was renamed the Work Projects Administration. [67]

The WPA was authorized to fund projects sponsored by both federal and non-federal agencies. Federal projects included those sponsored by (a) federal emergency agencies (such as the Rural Electrification Administration, the Resettlement Administration, Emergency Conservation Work, and the Works Progress Administration), and (b) regular departments of the federal government (such as the War, Navy, and Agriculture Departments). Non-federal projects could be sponsored by a state, territory, possession, or any governmental subdivision which typically included counties, cities, villages, or townships, and which offered a definite plan and procedure for the employment of persons on relief or in need of employment. Projects could not be sponsored by boards of trade, clubs, societies, churches, orphanages, veterans' organizations, or other private, sectarian, civic, or similar organizations, although such organizations could cooperate unofficially with sponsors in the origination of a

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project. Ultimately, projects sponsored by state and federal agencies represented only a small part of the WPA program. The vast majority of approved projects were planned and initiated by local units of government.

The President announced that the following criteria would be utilized in determining the eligibility of work projects:

- (1) The projects should be useful.
- (2) The projects should be such that a considerable proportion of the money should be spent on wages for labor.
- (3) Projects which promise ultimate return to the Federal Treasury of a considerable proportion of the costs will be sought.
- (4) Funds allotted for each project should be actually and promptly spent and not held over until later years.
- (5) In all cases projects must be of a character to give preference to those on the relief rolls.
- (6) Projects will be allocated to localities or relief areas in relation to the number of workers on relief rolls in those areas.
- (7) To move from the relief rolls to work on such projects, or into private employment, the maximum number of person in the shortest time possible. [68]

Each of the ERA acts which funded the Works Progress Administration specified the types of projects for which appropriated funds might be used. Section 1 (b) of the ERA Act for fiscal year 1943 included the following list of eligible project types:

"Highways, roads, and streets; public buildings; parks, and other recreational facilities, including buildings therein; public utilities, electric transmission and distribution lines or systems to serve persons in rural areas, including projects sponsored by and for the benefit of nonprofit and cooperative associations; sewer systems, water supply, and purification

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systems; airports and other transportation facilities; facilities for the training of personnel in the operations and maintenance of air navigation and landing area facilities; flood control; drainage; irrigation, including projects sponsored by nonprofit irrigation associations organized and operating for community benefit; water conservation; soil conservation, including projects sponsored by soil conservation districts and other bodies duly organized under state law for soil-erosion control and soil conservation, preference being given to projects which will contribute to the rehabilitation of individuals and an increase in the national income; forestation, and other improvements of forest areas, including the establishment of fire lanes; fish, game, and other wildlife conservation; eradication of insect, plant and fungus pests; the production of lime and marl for fertilizing soil for distribution to farmers under such conditions as may be determined by sponsors of such projects under the provisions of state law; educational, professional, clerical, cultural, recreation, production, and service projects, including training for manual occupations in industries engaged in production for national-defense purposes, for nursing and for domestic service; aid to self-help and cooperative associations for the benefit of needy persons; and miscellaneous projects; not less than \$6,000,000 of the funds made available in this Act shall be used exclusively for the operation of day nurseries and nursery schools for the children of employed mothers." [69]

The WPA sponsored the broadest range of projects of any work program of the period. Construction projects were not unlike those undertaken by the Public Works Administration, and a variety of conservation projects were conducted like those of the Civilian Conservation Corps. Yet, a broad range of service projects were also performed which typically employed professionals, white-collar workers, and women. Public activity projects included adult education, nursery schools, library services, recreation projects, museum projects, and Federal Project No. 1, which involved the sponsorship of music, art, writers', and theater projects. Research projects included social and economic surveys and studies, research assistance projects, public records projects, and historical records surveys. Welfare projects included sewing projects, school lunch programs, gardening and canning projects, housekeeping projects, surplus commodity distribution projects, public health projects, and hospital aide projects.

In order to carry out its program, the WPA was organized at four administrative levels:

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(1) The Central Administration in Washington - the central administration had the responsibility for the determination of WPA policies in accordance with the laws and regulations governing all WPA activities. Harry L. Hopkins was Administrator of the WPA from July 1935 through December 23, 1938. He was followed by Francis C. Harrington, Howard O. Hunter, Francis H. Dryden, Major General Phillip B. Fleming, and George H. Field who served until the end of the program in June 1943. The major divisions maintained in the central administration during the eight years of WPA operations included the following: (1) Engineering and Construction, (2) Service Projects, (3) Training and Reemployment, (4) Finance, (5) Employment, (6) Management or Administration, (7) Statistics, (8) Research, (9) Investigation, (10) Information, and (11) Legal.

(2) The Regional Offices - the regional offices had the responsibility for the direction and coordination of the program in the states of each region and in accordance with the policies and regulations prescribed by the central administration.

(3) The State Administrations - the state administrations were each responsible for the general administration of the WPA program within each state, which included securing federal approval and funds for project operations and the authorization of such project operations in accordance with local needs. The operating divisions at the state level were organized in sections which corresponded functionally to the divisions of the central administration.

(4) The District Offices - the district offices were responsible for the direct management of project operations and a variety of associated activities including the assignment of certified workers to projects, timekeeping, scheduling, and the initiation, termination, and completion of projects, and cooperating with local sponsors in the timing and management of project operations.

At the peak of the WPA program, in the fall of 1938, nearly 36,000 people held administrative positions in the central, regional, state, and district offices. [70]

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A formal proposal for the operation of a WPA project had to be made by a public agency, typically a local unit of government, which was legally empowered to sponsor the work proposed. This application was submitted on WPA Form 301 [See Exhibit V] and included a description of the project, cost estimates for labor, supervision, and materials, an analysis of the types of labor required (unskilled, intermediate, skilled, professional, technical, and supervisory), an analysis of the required equipment and materials, the estimated monthly employment, and a justification statement for the proposed project. All costs were expressed in terms of both the federal funds and the sponsor's contributions. A proposal for a construction projects had to be accompanied by preliminary engineering plans and sketches. The sponsors also agreed to complete the project if for any reason the project could not be completed by the WPA and they were also required to maintain and operate all completed project at their own expense.

All proposals were forwarded by the sponsors to the state WPA office. After the proposal was reviewed for eligibility and found acceptable, it was used as the basis for a project application, which was a formal request by the state administrator for authority to spend federal funds on the work described. The application was then sent to the Washington office of the WPA where it received a thorough review and was approved or disapproved. Final approval was given by the President. [See Exhibit VI] Authorized projects were then released for operation. Yet, the release of projects, the temporary suspension of project operations, or the termination of projects, all depended on the number of needy unemployed person in the community and the amount of federal funds appropriated to carry on the WPA program. All projects had to provide employment for the needy unemployed persons available in the local community. Many projects were delayed until other projects had been completed or until enough qualified unemployed persons had been certified to the WPA for employment. The vast majority of persons certified for employment were unskilled workers, and it became necessary for the sponsors to use their own funds to hire skilled workers needed to execute a particular project. This was particularly true for projects involving construction, such as schools and other public

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buildings, since this work usually required a high percentage of skilled workers.

Sponsors were required to pay a portion of the costs for each project. The average sponsor's contribution increased throughout the program although no minimum percentage was set by the WPA until the ERA Act of 1939 which contained a provision that sponsor's contributions must aggregate 25 percent of the cost of any project approved after January 1, 1940. The WPA typically paid the cost of the labor while the sponsor paid for non-labor expenses such as materials, equipment, tools, skilled labor, technical supervision, office space, and supplies.

When sponsoring WPA projects, state and local governments considered the fact that they had the responsibility for financing their direct relief programs. When WPA employment was provided in a community, there were fewer people in need of direct relief. This was one of the incentives for sponsoring WPA project, yet, the chief incentive was the desire to secure useful public improvements and services.

The total WPA expenditures for the eight year period of the program were \$10,750,501,000. Sponsors contributed \$2,837,713,000. The largest part of these expenditures was devoted to construction projects. For the period from July 1935 through March 1943, construction projects accounted for more than 77% of the total expenses while service projects accounted for about 23%, and training and reemployment projects accounted for less than 1%. The greatest expenditures were for highway, road, and street projects. Expenditures on these projects totaled \$4,903,767,000 and accounted for about one-half of the expenditures on construction projects and nearly two-fifths of the expenditures on all projects during the eight years of the WPA program. Next in terms of total expenditures were welfare projects which totaled \$1,438,674,000 and accounted for about one-half of the expenditures on all service projects and for more than one-tenth of total expenditures. [71] The following table provides a breakdown of funds expended on all WPA operations through March 31, 1943:

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<u>Type of Project</u>	<u>Percent</u>
<u>Division of Engineering and Construction</u>	<u>76.9</u>
Airports and airways	3.1
Buildings	10.6
Conservation	3.5
Engineering surveys	0.4
Highways, roads, and streets	37.9
Recreation facilities (excluding buildings)	7.6
Sanitation	1.8
Water & sewer systems and other utilities	10.1
Other	1.9
<u>Division of Service Projects</u>	<u>22.5</u>
Public activities	7.0
Art and museum	0.6
Education	2.0
Library	1.0
Music	0.7
Recreation	2.0
Writing	0.2
Other	0.5
Research and records	4.0
Historical records survey	0.3
Public records	1.5
Research and surveys	2.0
Other	0.2
War services	0.4
Welfare	11.1
Feeding	3.3
Production	0.4
Public health and hospital work	0.8
Sewing	6.2



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Other 0.4

Division of Training and Reemployment 0.6 [72]

The physical accomplishments associated with these expenditures include the construction or improvement of 651,087 miles of highways, streets, and roads, and the construction of 77,965 bridges and viaducts, 1,668 parks, and 2,877 public utility and sanitation plants. New construction of public buildings is itemized in the following table:

<u>Type of Project</u>	<u>Number</u>
<u>Public Buildings - Total</u>	<u>35,064</u>
Educational	
Libraries	151
Schools	5,908
Recreational	
Auditoriums	422
Gymnasiums	1,255
Other	7,019
Offices and administrative	1,536
Hospitals	226
Penal institutions	181
Dormitories	1,473
Firehouses	325
Garages	2,522
Storage	2,368
Armories	357
Barns and stables	1,930
Other	9,391

When additions and building improvements are also included, these figures assume staggering proportions with 4,792 additions and 85,254 reconstructions or improvements. [73]

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When the Works Progress Administration was established in May 1935, there were 51,727 people employed in the work program of the Minnesota State Emergency Relief Administration. There were an additional 90,107 who had registered for employment. It was the responsibility of the WPA to assume the work program of the SERA and to operate the new federal work relief program. [74] In June 1935, a WPA Administrator was appointed for Minnesota who became the first of the following three individuals to serve in this position:

Victor Christgau - Christgau was born on September 20, 1884 in Dexter Township in Mower County. He attended the University of Minnesota (1914-1917) and the University College of Agriculture (1918-1924). He was a member of the Farmer Labor Party and was elected state senator from the 5th district in 1926. In 1928 he was elected to the U.S. Congress from the 1st district, where he served until 1932. He was appointed assistant administrator of the Agricultural Adjustment Administration in 1933. Christgau returned to Minnesota in 1935 as the first administrator of the state's WPA program. He was replaced as administrator in 1939, apparently for political reasons, and later held several administrative positions within the Minnesota Employment Service. In 1954 he returned to Washington as Director of the Bureau of Old Age and Survivor Insurance of the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare. [75]

Linus C. Glotzbach - Glotzbach had served as a WPA District Director and served briefly as state administrator in 1939.

Sidney L. Stolte - Stolte received a degree in architectural engineering from the University of Minnesota. After working for an architectural firm, Stolte became Assistant Area Engineer in St. Cloud for the State Emergency Relief Administration. He later moved to St. Paul and became Construction Engineer for the SERA. When the WPA was established, Stolte retained the same position within the new program and was eventually appointed Director of Operations in April 1936. He served as State WPA Administrator from August 1939 until April 1943 when the program ended. Stolte returned to private practice and was employed by architect P. C. Bettenburg of St. Paul. [76]

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In addition to the state administrative office, the state was divided into districts in order to achieve decentralized administrative control. The state was initially organized into nine districts, which may have been loosely based on the state's nine congressional districts. After it was determined which county areas were to be included in each district, it was decided to further decentralize for purposes of project operation and area offices were also established within each district. As of December 31, 1935, the Minnesota WPA contained nine districts and was further subdivided into 38 areas. [77] [See Exhibit VII] The number of districts and areas varied throughout the program based on the total employment provided by the WPA as illustrated in the following table:

<u>Date</u>	<u>Districts</u>	<u>Areas</u>	<u>Total Employed</u>
December 1935	9	38	51,554
December 1936	9	35	48,421
December 1937	7	22	44,400
December 1938	6	28	63,762
December 1939	5	27	43,570
December 1940	5	27	40,309
December 1941	4	12	25,994
December 1942	3	6	8,139 [78]

The Minnesota Works Progress Administration included the following divisions which were represented at both the state and district level, while only the finance and operating divisions were represented at the area level:

Division of Engineering and Construction - The Division of Projects and Planning, later known as the Division of Operations, and finally renamed the Division of Engineering and Construction, included a State Director, or Chief Engineer, an Assistant

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Engineer, the District Directors, and the Area Supervisors. At the state level, this division was further subdivided into an Engineering Review Section, a Project Control Section, a Field Inspection Section, and a Special Phases Section, all of which were concerned with the overall administrative control of construction projects, with the detailed control of an actual project delegated to the district and area staffs. In 1936 a Safety Section was incorporated within this division in order to supervise the safety practices of both the engineering section and service projects.

The Division of Service Projects - Known at times throughout the WPA program as the Division of Women's and Professional Projects, the Professional and Service Division, and the Division of Community Service Programs, this division developed programs in the fields of sewing, health, book repair, clerical work, recreation, adult education, library work, school lunch programs, health programs, housekeeping aide programs, research, statistical, and survey projects, nursery school programs, and music and art projects. Employment within this division focused on women, and professional, and white collar workers.

Division of Training and Reemployment - Initiated in 1940, this division was established by the ERA Act for fiscal year 1941 in order to provide a vocational training program for qualified WPA employees. Its establishment was prompted by a demand for skilled workers as a result of the growing concern over the beginning of the international conflict. Training activities were instituted first on a basis of a refresher course for those persons who already possessed a skill in an occupation declared essential to the defense effort, and second, as a pre-employment course for those persons showing considerable aptitude for mechanical or vocational training.

Division of Employment - The Division of Employment was created from two separate divisions, the Division of Labor Management and the Division of Intake and Certification. Local welfare offices, under the supervision of the State Emergency Relief Administration, certified those workers eligible for the WPA program. Once a worker had been certified, the Division of

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Employment maintained a labor inventory and assigned the worker once a suitable position was available.

Division of Finance and Control - This division was responsible for the accounting of all funds expended, determining the legality of expenditures, and the performance of all work activities.

Division of Supply - Established in 1938, this division operated a central warehouse in order to purchase certain materials more profitably in bulk, to transfer equipment from one project to another, to make the proper provision for the repair and maintenance of tools and equipment, and for the economical distribution of property to various projects.

Like the Public Works Administration, the WPA clearly stated that it was not its practice to suggest or specify the architectural style for a particular project. This remained the responsibility of the sponsor who was also required to furnish the architectural plans and specifications. However, the design would be reviewed for its structural soundness and a simplification in architectural style might be recommended since straightforward design would be best suited to the limited skills usually available for WPA work. Sponsors might be urged to eliminate ornate architectural features, intricate structural systems, and elaborate trim. Designs were suggested which would not require highly skilled and specialized workers who were not available from the relief rolls. In order to employ the maximum amount of WPA labor, sponsors were encouraged to use methods which would require the least equipment consistent with efficiency. [79] Thus, the typical styles of the day continued to develop within the framework of WPA projects and a style such as the Moderne was often employed because of its straightforward design and popularity.

However, regional architectural styles developed throughout Minnesota which may be more directly linked to the WPA because of various financial restrictions associated with both the program itself and a project's sponsor. A sponsor was usually responsible for all non-labor costs associated with a project, including materials, and federal funds become increasingly limited for such non-labor items. In addition, certain types of construction projects, such as bridges or buildings, often involved non-labor

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costs which totaled 40%-60% of the total cost. Yet, the greatest need for employment often existed in locations where communities were least able to afford the sponsor's contribution. State funds were sometimes available in such cases, but this situation also resulted in the exploitation of local building materials. [80] Fieldstone, for example, involved minimal material cost to the sponsor, yet resulted in labor intensive construction methods which clearly met the needs of the relief program.

Quarries were opened by the WPA to produce limestone, and sometimes granite, in order to construct buildings which would not have been available to a community had the sponsor been required to purchase the finished product. Pink Mankato stone was discovered in some abandoned bridge piers in the Mississippi river near St. Paul which was reused for the Hamline, Minnehaha, Highland, and Baker Playground Buildings. Several limestone buildings at the old Stillwater State Prison were considered a safety hazard and relief labor demolished the buildings and salvaged the stone. In the meantime, an abandoned stone plant was equipped and manned with an experienced crew from the WPA rolls, many of whom were former employees of the plant itself. The stone was then used for various improvements in St. Paul. Similarly, large quantities of brick and timbers were salvaged from the demolition of the old State Capitol building and were used in the construction of other projects.

Sand and gravel operations were initiated in order to provide materials for gravel roads and architectural concrete for buildings, bridges, culverts, sidewalks, curbs, gutters, and other improvements. In fact, reinforced or precast concrete construction was the preferred construction method when the relief labor available for a project was relatively unskilled. In the northern part of the state, CCC and Transient Camps cleared dead and fallen timber for the primary purpose of providing protection against forest fires. Many valuable timber logs were then salvaged and processed for direct log construction or were cut into dimensional lumber and used in the construction of forestry and other public buildings. Thus, relief labor was used in both the original preparation of the building material and in the construction of the structure itself. However, the necessary craftsmen were required as well. A WPA report concerning Gus

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Anderson, the foreman for the Brandon Community Building, commented that, "His talent for handling field stone has made his services much in demand for other similar projects in the 8th WPA District."

Buildings throughout the state illustrate a variety of regional architectural expressions based on the use of native building materials. Examples include a granite school building in Rockville, the log constructed Conservation Building at the Itasca County Fairgrounds, and the Silver Lake Recreation Area in Rochester which utilized native stone in construction. One of the most interesting examples of the use of native materials include a series of stone buildings located in west central Minnesota. These include the Moorhead Community Building, the Hawley Bath House, the Rothsay School, the Oakport Community Building, the Mahnomen City Hall, and the Flom Community Building. In each case, native field stone, either split or cut, was chosen as the building material. It is unlikely that this would have been the material of choice had the WPA not required the project sponsor to furnish all non-labor items. Thus, even though an architectural style may not have been specified, the programmatic requirements of the WPA lead to a variety of architectural expressions which often utilized finely crafted indigenous materials.

Completed buildings, such as schools, libraries, auditoriums, and municipal buildings, could also be decorated with art works produced under the WPA Federal Art Program, which, along with the music, theater, and writer's projects, was administered under Federal Project No. 1. The program began in August 1935 and was administered according to the relief rules of the WPA. It lasted until June 1943, and cost about \$35,000,000. Slightly over 5,000 persons were employed at its peak.

The most typical artistic expression in public buildings was mural painting, with a total of 2,566 murals executed nationwide. [81] Only one restriction was placed on the subject matter, it must be American, whether naturalistic, symbolic, legendary, or historical. The artwork reflected a realistic, regional style and was notable for the depiction of historical events and activities associated with the communities in which they were located. The

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subject matter could typically be described as the American scene in all its phases.

Over 42,000 easel paintings and were produced as well as large numbers of sculptures, silk-screenings, posters, and graphic arts works. The Index of American Design was a research project which eventually produced 20,000 photographic reproductions and classifications of a wide variety of American art, paintings, sculptures, handicrafts, and folk art. The Federal Art Project also established hundreds of community arts centers, organized exhibitions, and provided many communities with original works of art for the first time. [82]

By January 1938, when the Works Progress Administration had been in effect for two years and 5 months, a total of \$96,000,000 had been expended on work relief in Minnesota. The following list of improvements to public property is particularly complete and clearly differentiates new construction, additions, and repairs, which is not always clear in later statistical reports. This listing also describes the diversity of the projects which were sponsored in Minnesota and the rather remarkable accomplishments achieved in a rather limited period of time.

Administrative buildings and offices - 78 projects; 3 additions, 20 new structures, 55 repair projects; total square feet, 2,427,945.

Aircraft hangars - 6 projects; 1 new, 4 repair projects, 1 demolition.

Auditoriums - 29 projects; 14 new, 13 repair, 2 additions; total floor space, 355,510 square feet; total seating capacity, 32,565.

Barns - 46 projects; 25 new, 16 repairs, 4 additions, 1 demolition; total volume, 5,296,480 cubic feet.

Community buildings - 68 projects; 21 new, 36 repair, 2 additions, 9 demolitions.



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Dormitories - 20 projects; 3 new, 17 repair; total floor space, 133,440 square feet; total accommodations, 879 persons.

Fire houses - 16 projects; 3 new, 10 repair, 3 demolition; total volume, 1,498,427 cubic feet; total capacity, 99 pieces of equipment.

Garages - 88 projects; 49 new, 38 repair, 1 addition; total volume, 3,636,887 cubic feet; total capacity, 811 vehicles.

Gymnasiums - 10 projects; 3 new, 4 repair, 3 additions; total floor space, 61,925 square feet.

Hospitals - 19 projects; 1 new, 18 repair; total floor space, 1,029,781 square feet; total capacity, 3,864 patients.

Jails - 14 projects; 3 new, 11 repair; total floor space, 147,260 square feet; total capacity, 1,026 inmates.

Institutional buildings - 25 projects; all repair projects; total floor space 347,020 square feet; total capacity, 2,581 patients.

Libraries - 16 projects; 1 new, 15 repair; total capacity, 622,3481 books.

Power houses - 2 projects; 2 repair; kilowatt capacity, 12,000.

Recreational buildings - 107 projects; 39 new, 68 repair; total floor space, 396,989 square feet.

Schools - 405 projects; 52 new 344 repairs, 3 additions, 6 demolitions; total floor space, 8,570,004 square feet; total capacity, 180,012 pupils.

Stadiums - 19 projects; 10 new, 8 repairs, 1 demolition; total seating capacity, 31,140.

Warehouses - 30 projects; 15 new, 11 repair, 1 addition, 3 demolition.

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Culverts - 3,958 locations; 2,859 new, 1,099 repair; total length, 172,820 feet.

Curb replacements - 251,174 linear feet, or 37.61 miles.

Gutters - 193,415 linear feet (paved); all new.

Small dams - 106 locations; 105 new, 1 repair; total length of crest, 4,312 linear feet; total storage capacity, 474,476 acre feet.

Large dams - 21 locations; all new; total length of crest, 762 linear feet.

Docks, wharfs or piers - 13 locations; 2 new, 11 repair; total usable water front, 4,247 feet.

Roadside drainage - open ditch, linear feet of new construction, 398,298; repair work, 1,503,909; pipe drainage, 12,786 linear feet, all new construction.

Drainage other than roadside, - open ditch, 601,239 linear feet; pipe drainage, 657,622 linear feet; total acres drained 82,759.

Excavating and filling - cubic yards excavated, 3,623,906; cubic yards filled, 2,253,419.

Fences and wall fences - linear feet of enclosing fences, 50,794; acreage fenced, 47,068; linear feet of line fence, 342.

Grading - other than excavation or fill - 1,895 acres.

Levees and embankments - 35,226 linear feet; 196,185 cubic yards.

Lighting installations - park areas, athletic fields, landing fields - 4 locations totaling 3.31 acres with 86 lights. In addition, 1,226 miles of road lighted requiring 8,183 lights.

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Power distribution lines - 6,733 linear feet with 65 consumer connections.

Pumping stations - 2 locations; 1 new and 1 repair.

Athletic fields - 136 locations; 37 new, 99 repair.

Band shells - 8 locations; 6 new, 2 repair.

Golf courses - 12 locations; 2 new, 10 repair; total acreage, 1,158.

Handball courts - 8 projects, all new.

Horseshoe courts - 34 projects, all new.

Ice skating areas - 189 locations; 181 new, 8 repair; total skating surface, 10,548,320 square feet.

Parks - 147 locations; 29 new, 118 repair; total acreage, 3,370.

Playgrounds - 67 locations; 15 new, 52 repair.

Ski Jumps - 1 project, new.

Swimming pools - 16 locations; 13 new, 3 repair; total square feet of water surface, 123,497.

Tennis courts - 219 locations; 40 new, 179 repair.

Retaining walls and revetments - total length, 57,925 linear feet; total cubic yards, 239,068.

River bank improvement - 17.67 miles.

Sidewalks - paved, 377,542 linear feet, unpaved, 92.703 linear feet.

Slopes, berms, terraces - 10 locations, all new construction; total linear feet, 1,700.

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Storm and sanitary sewers - trunk lines, 540,203 linear feet; laterals, 107,238 linear feet; service connections, 792; man-holes and catch basins, 1,526.

Telephone lines - 2,415,568 linear feet.

Sewage treatment plants - 20 locations; 13 new and 7 repair; total capacity, 7,580,918 gallons per day; total population served 33,385.

Tunnels - 6 locations, all new construction; total linear feet, 3,113.

Water mains - linear feet, 286,145.

Water tanks and reservoirs - 33 locations; 30 new, 3 repair; total capacity, 14,653,474 gallons.

Game sanctuaries - 4 locations with a total of 24 acres improved.

Reforestation - 2,054 acres on which 171,903 trees were planted. [83]

Yet, in spite of its accomplishments, the WPA remained the most controversial program of the New Deal. The "make work" nature of certain projects was often criticized, and when dissident workers formed the Workers' Alliance, congressional critics and a segment of the public were further alienated. The unprecedented Federal Project No. 1, which included the art, writer's, and theater projects, was also particularly susceptible to criticism. Private industry also charged the WPA with unfair competition. Unlike like the Public Works Administration, which funded construction utilizing private contractors, the WPA would serve as the general contractor for its projects and would supervise and manage all aspects of construction. Not surprisingly, the construction industry praised the PWA but constantly demanded the termination of the WPA. The Improvement Bulletin, a regional construction periodical, consistently attacked the WPA, particularly after the PWA had come to an end.

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Yet, the Works Progress Administration remained one of the most important works programs of the Depression Era. By the time the WPA ended in 1943, approximately, 8,500,000 different persons had been employed on projects during the 8 year duration of the program. [84] This represented about one-third of the nation's unemployed at an average monthly income of \$50. In Minnesota, one quarter billion dollars were expended affecting some 600,000 persons. Physical accomplishments include 28,000 miles of roads newly built or improved; 677 bridges built and 766 improved; 28,000 feet of culverts; 578 miles of sidewalk; 673 miles of curbs; 106 miles of gutters; 1,324 new public buildings constructed (including 126 new schools, 7 hospitals, and 3 armories), and 2,334 others improved; 52 stadiums or grandstands seating 105,000 people; 119 athletic fields; 15 swimming pools; 56 sewage treatment plants; 6 water treatment plants; 769 miles of storm and sanitary sewers; 348 miles of watermains; 5 fish hatcheries; 313 water control dams; 1 million square yards of riprap; three new airports built and nine improved. [85]

The Works Progress Administration promoted its own accomplishments through procedures which mandated the presence of identifying signs at projects sites, and by supplying a variety of bronze plaques for completed buildings. As a result, the initials WPA are among the best remembered symbols of the New Deal and are still found on hundreds of buildings throughout the state. [86]

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## VI. THE NATIONAL YOUTH ADMINISTRATION

The National Youth Administration was created by Executive Order No. 7086 on June 26, 1935 under the authority of the Emergency Relief Appropriation Act of 1935. The NYA was essentially a recognition that prior federal programs of the early days of the New Deal had dealt inadequately with the employment and educational needs of American youth. Upon signing the order, President Roosevelt made the following statement, which reflected the national concern of parents, educators, labor, and industry on the problem of youth unemployment, and which set the broad administrative policy of the NYA:

I have determined that we shall do something for the Nation's unemployed youth because we can ill afford to lose the skill and energy of these young men and women. They must have their chance in school, their turn as apprentices, an opportunity for jobs, and a chance to work and earn for themselves.

In recognition of this great national need, I have established a National Youth Administration to be under the Works Progress Administration.

This undertaking will need the vigorous cooperation of the citizens of the several States, and to insure that they shall have an important part in this work, a representative group will be appointed to act as a national advisory board, with similar boards of citizens in the States and municipalities throughout the country. On these boards there shall be representatives of industry, labor, education, and youth, because I want the youth of America to have something to say about what is being done for them.

Organizations along State and municipal lines will be developed. The work of these organizations will be to mobilize industrial, commercial, agricultural, and educational forces of the States so as to provide employment and to render other practical assistance to unemployed youth.

It is recognized that the final solution of this whole program of unemployed youth will not be attained until there is a resumption of normal business activities and opportunities for private employment on a wide scale. I believe that the national youth program will serve the most pressing and immediate needs of that portion of unemployed youth most seriously affected at the present time.

It is my sincere hope that all public and private agencies, groups, and organizations, as well as educators, recreational leaders, employers, and labor leaders, will cooperate

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wholeheartedly with the National and State Youth Administrations  
in the furtherance of this national youth program.

The yield on this investment should be high. [87]

The major objectives of the NYA were formulated shortly after its creation, and they remained fundamentally unchanged throughout the life of the program. These objectives included:

1. To provide funds for the part-time employment of needy school, college, and graduate students so that they could continue their education.
2. To provide funds for the part-time employment of young people on work projects, the projects being designed primarily not only to give these young people valuable work experience but to benefit youth generally in the local communities.
3. To establish and to encourage the establishment of job training, counseling, and placement services for youth.
4. To encourage the development and extension of constructive educational and job-qualifying leisure-time activities.

Therefore, the National Youth Administration had just one basic purpose: to provide part-time work, paying wages, for two groups of young people throughout the country, youth who were in school but who needed financial assistance in order to continue their education, and youth who were out of school, unemployed, and needy. [88]

The NYA was in operation eight years, from June 26, 1935 to June 30, 1943. A total of \$662,300,000 was expended, of which \$467,600,000 went for the payment of wages for the employment of needy, unemployed, out-of-school youth, and \$169,500,000 in wages to needy young persons in order that they might continue their education. This expenditure of federal funds enabled the employment of 4,800,000 young people, of whom 2,800,000 were given work experience and training on work projects producing useful goods and services, and 2,000,000 were school, college, and graduate students working in public and semi-public non-profit institutions. [89]

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In Minnesota, \$10,312,393 was expended for the out-of-school work program and \$4,004.704 was spent on the student work program, for a total of \$14,317,097. [90]

The various types of work activities conducted during fiscal year 1942 were categorized as follows on a nationwide basis:

<u>Project Type</u>	<u>Percent</u>
Construction	21.5
Production activities	34.5
Professional and clerical	44.0 [91]

Only 13.3% of construction activities were involved in building construction. As a result, few buildings were constructed in Minnesota by the National Youth Administration. Rare examples include the finely crafted log buildings at Bemidji State Park, which are already listed on the National Register, and the Stuntz Township Garage near Hibbing. However, a significant NYA construction undertaking was roadside improvement which was conducted throughout the state in cooperation with the Minnesota Department of Highways. Waysides, overlooks, and parking areas were constructed, historic markers were built, and natural roadside springs were developed. In addition, picnic tables and benches, refuse containers, fireplace grates, and directional markers were also constructed.

The Annual Report of the Accomplishments of Roadside Development Along the Trunk Highways in Minnesota for 1939 includes the following locations of NYA highway projects:

Brophy Lake  
Eskos Corner Weighing Station  
Frontenac  
Trunk Highway 61 at Lake Pepin  
Garfield Avenue in Duluth  
Glencoe  
Lexington Avenue and Trunk Highway No. 36  
Mendota  
Pine Bend  
Reads Landing  
Savage  
Shakopee Camp Grounds  
Shakopee - (five miles northeast of town)  
Stillwater - (old prison grounds)



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Stillwater - (north and south of town)  
NYA Center -(Work Shop)

A particularly intact and well preserved wayside overlook is located just south of Stillwater, high above the St. Croix River. Finely crafted native stone was used in the construction.

Under the reorganization legislation effective July 1, 1939, the National Youth Administration was transferred from the Works Progress Administration to the newly created Federal Security Agency. Executive Order No. 9247, dated September 17, 1942, transferred the NYA to the War Manpower Commission in the Office for Emergency Management of the Executive Offices of the President. In the Labor-Federal Security Appropriation Act of 1944, Congress ordered the liquidation of the National Youth Administration no later than January 1, 1944.

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**F. Associated Property Types**

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I. Name of Property Type \_\_\_\_\_

II. Description

III. Significance

IV. Registration Requirements

☒ See continuation sheet

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☒ See continuation sheet for additional property types

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## G. Summary of Identification and Evaluation Methods

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Discuss the methods used in developing the multiple property listing.

☒ See continuation sheet

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## H. Major Bibliographical References

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☒ See continuation sheet

Primary location of additional documentation:

- ☒ State historic preservation office  
☐ Other State agency  
☐ Federal agency

- ☐ Local government  
☐ University  
☐ Other

Specify repository: \_\_\_\_\_

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## I. Form Prepared By

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## ASSOCIATED PROPERTY TYPES

### I. NAME OF PROPERTY TYPE: GOVERNMENT BUILDINGS

### II. DESCRIPTION

Government Buildings of the Depression Era are generally those buildings associated with the administration and operation of the federal, state, county, and municipal levels of government. This property type is divided into the following structural types:

#### A. POST OFFICES

Post office buildings represent the most visible federal presence in Minnesota communities and their frequent construction during the Depression Era produced a common structural type throughout the state. The construction of federal buildings, such as post offices, had been promoted prior to the Roosevelt Administration and many buildings were constructed under this earlier program, such as the Minneapolis Post Office which was begun by early 1933. However, once the Public Works Administration assumed sponsorship of post office construction for the Treasury Department later that same year, over three times as many buildings were constructed than had been built in the preceding 50 years. One new post office could be constructed in each congressional district each year and by 1939 the PWA had financed the construction of 406 post office buildings nationwide.

As early as 1915, post office construction had been standardized as a cost savings measure. Four classifications (A-D) were developed which determined the size and building material for a particular post office based on the level of annual postal receipts. For example, a Class A building indicated a significant site with annual receipts in excess of \$800,000. In this case, the building materials might include marble or granite. However, a Class D building, with receipts of less than \$15,000. would be built with brick with standard doors and sash. Standardization continued during the Depression with the design work generally

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completed by architects of the Treasury Department such as Louis Simon. Typical standardized buildings with only minor modifications in design and materials include post offices in Grand Rapids, Hibbing, and Hastings. These buildings are one story structures constructed with brick with minimal stone trim.

All told a remarkable variety of designs were executed by Treasury Department architects as well as local architects which were employed on certain projects. Notable examples include the monumental Minneapolis Post Office built in the Moderne Style, the Collegiate Gothic post office in Northfield, and a post office in Park Rapids designed in the Georgian Revival Style.

## B. COURTHOUSES

Only one known courthouse building was constructed by the federal work programs; the Becker County Courthouse in Detroit Lakes. This three story Moderne building occupies an entire city block and features polished marble trim. However, both the Kanabek and Todd County Courthouses were expanded during the period and the Fillmore and Polk County Courthouses were remodeled. The Moderne Style Rice County Courthouse in Faribault was already under construction when the Public Works Administration was established, yet, the PWA allotted a grant for the completion of the building.

## C. MUNICIPAL BUILDINGS

Municipal buildings, also known as city, town, or village halls, represent one of the most frequently constructed structural types from the period. These buildings are typically one story structures of moderate size, although a number of two story buildings were also constructed. Building materials include brick, stone and reinforced concrete, although frame construction was not uncommon. Stylistically, municipal buildings represent a range of designs from Moderne to split stone construction, with an occasional singular example such as the Bovey Village Hall which was built in the Baroque Revival Style.

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Municipal buildings were often multi-functional, particularly when constructed in small communities. These buildings frequently combined any number of the following uses: office facilities, council chambers, libraries, auditoriums, meeting rooms with kitchen space, police stations, fire departments, and even post offices. Notable examples of this structural type were constructed in Bovey, Calumet, Milaca, Mahanomen, Hawley, New York Mills, Onamia, Roseau, and Buckman.

## D. POLICE STATIONS AND FIRE DEPARTMENTS

Although often included within municipal buildings, Police Stations and Fire Departments were sometimes built as separate structures. These buildings are one or two story structures of brick, stone, or frame construction. Examples include a police station in Duluth and a fire hall in north Minneapolis.

## E. WAREHOUSES AND GARAGES

Warehouses and garages were built for cities, counties, schools, hospitals, and forestry stations. These are often plain, utilitarian structures of varying size built with frame or brick construction. The most distinctive examples of this property type are constructed with native stone such as the Olmsted County Garage in Rochester and a school garage in Chisholm.

## F. CEMETERY CHAPELS

A finely crafted split stone cemetery chapel and mausoleum was built at the Maple Hill Cemetery in Hibbing. The small structure was designed in Gothic Revival Style. Chapels were also constructed at Bagley and Bemidji.

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## G. MILITARY FACILITIES

A military facility is best defined by an armory building, however, this structural type also includes buildings and structures constructed at large scale military complexes such as Fort Snelling and Camp Ripley. Armory buildings are large, imposing structures, often with monumental proportions, which often occupy an entire city block. Building materials usually include reinforced concrete and structural steel, sometimes employed with innovative construction methods. Armory buildings were constructed in Minneapolis, Brainerd, Moorhead, Crookston, Albert Lea, and Camp Ripley.

Construction at Camp Ripley also included an entrance structure, a brigade headquarters building, a kitchen, an oil storage building, as well as grease racks and rifle butts.

## III. SIGNIFICANCE

Government Buildings are historically significant for their association with the social, political, and economic impact of the Great Depression and the subsequent development of the various federal relief programs which were responsible for their construction. This unprecedented federal response often produced a building representing a city's first modern and complete municipal facility, which ultimately resulted in an expanded governmental presence in the community. Towns and villages, which had previously provided the services of only a fire department and jail, were able to offer libraries, auditoriums, and community rooms, which were used for a variety of social and civic functions, as well as complete public safety facilities, all of which enhanced the quality of life in the community.

The construction of a Government Building often provided substantial employment to the area and significantly reduced the number of residents receiving direct relief. The federal

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assistance associated with these buildings established the precedent for direct federal allotments to municipal governments which we know today.

Government Buildings are architecturally significant as many of the most prominent and visually significant buildings in the community. A variety of well executed designs were constructed, including the prevailing styles of the day, as well distinctive architectural expressions associated with specific works programs, such as the Works Progress Administration. The programmatic requirements for such projects often resulted in the use of native building materials featuring irreplaceable labor intensive methods and finely crafted detailing.

#### IV. REGISTRATION REQUIREMENTS

The following criteria should be applied in order to place Government Buildings on the National Register of Historic Places:

1. The construction of a Government Building should have been financed through a grant or loan from the federal government, or federal funds should have been utilized for materials, labor, or supervision.
2. Construction should have been completed by the end of 1941.
3. Due to the large number of surviving resources, and because many Government Buildings may be considered historically significant for their association with the unprecedented federal response to the Great Depression, the following criteria should also be applied:

a. A Government Building should be eligible under National Register Criterion A by representing a particularly important project through the size and scope of the work involved, or by the number of people employed; or the project should represent a significant contribution to the community by providing a new and modern facility which offered programs, amenities, or community services which were previously unavailable. For example, a

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municipal building which lacked architectural significance and which merely duplicated previously available services might not be considered eligible unless it provided significant employment. Or if this criteria is not met, the following criteria should be applied:

b. A Government Building should be eligible under National Register Criterion C for incorporating the distinctive characteristics of a type, period, or method of construction, or represent the work of a master, or possess high artistic values. This criteria may be met if a building is constructed with finely crafted indigenous materials, a distinctive construction method often associated with specific federal work programs such as the Civilian Conservation Corps or the Works Progress Administration; or a building may be considered eligible if it contains art or sculpture which has been evaluated as artistically significant. For example, a post office designed in a distinctive example of the Collegiate Gothic Style may be considered eligible, however, a post office constructed utilizing a standardized federal design not may be eligible unless it represents a particularly important work relief project, or contains a mural of artistic significance. Or if this criteria is not met, the following criteria should be applied:

c. A Government Building should represent the only known example in the state of a particular category of resource within this property type, or one of the few remaining buildings associated with a specific work program. For example, a garage building may not be considered architecturally significant, yet, it may be eligible as one of the few examples of a complete building constructed by a work program such as the National Youth Administration; or a sole surviving example of a municipal building may be eligible for its ability to represent this historically significant building type.

4. A building constructed as part of a larger existing complex, such as a military facility, may not be considered eligible unless evaluated in terms of the broader contexts associated with the complex.



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5. A Government Building should possess integrity of location, design, materials, workmanship, and association, and should be without substantial alterations. Original materials and prominent features should remain intact, and any alterations should be modest in scale without impacting or obscuring major facades, elements, or design features. A Government Building should represent new construction rather than an addition or expansion.

6. A building need not retain its original function if historic physical integrity is retained.

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I. NAME OF PROPERTY TYPE: PUBLIC UTILITIES

II. DESCRIPTION

The construction of modern public utilities was one of the most popular projects of the period. In fact, over 50% of the initial Minnesota applicants for funding from the Public Works Administration included some provision for public utilities. This property type includes the following structural types:

A. WATERWORKS

Waterworks may include filtration and softening plants as well as standard water towers. Buildings are typically one story brick or stone structures with large industrial sash. Stylistically, these buildings are often plain and utilitarian, yet Moderne Style structures were also constructed such as the water softening plant in Little Falls, a filtration plant in Hallock, and a waterworks facility in Faribault.

B. POWER AND HEATING PLANTS

Like the waterworks facilities, heating and power plants are often large utilitarian structures which house substantial mechanical operations. Building materials usually include brick with minimal stone trim. Examples of this structural type include heating plants at Keewatin and Sleepy Eye.

C. SEWAGE TREATMENT PLANTS

The installation of sewers and the construction of sewage disposal plants was one of the standard projects of the Depression Era. These projects often represented the first modern sanitation facilities in a community. Although even as late as 1940 a surprising number of Minnesota municipalities were still without a sewage treatment plant.

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Sewage treatment plants consist of a complex of buildings and structures built with brick, stone, or reinforced concrete. The small treatment plant at Perham was typical of those constructed in rural communities, while urban areas often constructed extensive facilities which represented some of the largest public works projects of the period. The massive Minneapolis and St. Paul Treatment Plant and sewer system, for example, was erected at a cost of approximately ten million dollars.

One of the most interesting projects in the state was the sewage treatment plant in Hibbing which included nine buildings and structures built in the Moderne Style. The two trickling filters were enclosed by self supporting reinforced concrete domes, 150 feet in diameter, which were among the largest of their type in the world.

### III. SIGNIFICANCE

Public Utilities are historically significant for their association with the social, political, and economic impact of the Great Depression and the subsequent development of the various federal relief programs which were responsible for their construction. This unprecedented federal response provided many communities in the state with their first modern and complete utility systems. Public utility projects were among those most frequently requested throughout the entire Depression Era and studies from the period confirmed that the absence of sanitary facilities was commonplace throughout the state, a situation which improved dramatically throughout the 1930s.

Public utility projects were also a major source of work relief. The implementation or extension of sewer or water systems was a project which required minimal supervision, and which could be initiated almost immediately, without extensive planning. Some of the largest projects from the entire period involved the construction treatment plants built in cities ranging from Hibbing to Minneapolis and St. Paul.

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From both an architectural and visual standpoint, utility systems are often overlooked. The major portions of a project may remain concealed beneath the earth and plants and treatment facilities are usually utilitarian in nature and located in remote areas of a town. Yet, a number of impressive complexes of buildings and structures were constructed, some of which represent interesting adaptations of the Moderne Style and several which exhibit engineering significance because of their innovative construction.

#### IV. REGISTRATION REQUIREMENTS

The following criteria should be applied in order to place Public Utilities on the National Register of Historic Places:

1. The construction of a Public Utility should have been financed through a grant or loan from the federal government, or federal funds should have been utilized for materials, labor, or supervision.

2. Construction should have been completed by the end of 1941.

3. Due to the large number of surviving resources, and because Public Utilities may be considered historically significant for their association with the unprecedented federal response to the Great Depression, the following criteria should also be applied:

- a. A Public Utility should be eligible under National Register Criterion A by representing a particularly important project through the size and scope of the work involved, or by the number of people employed; or the project should represent a significant contribution to the community by providing modern utilities or sanitation facilities which were previously unavailable; or if this criteria is not met, the following criteria should be applied:

- b. A Public Utility should be eligible under National Register Criterion C for incorporating the distinctive characteristics of a type, period, or method of construction, or represent the work of a master, or possess high artistic values.

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This criteria may be met if property is constructed with finely crafted indigenous materials, a distinctive construction method often associated with specific federal work programs such as the Works Progress Administration; or if this criteria is not met, the following criteria should be applied:

c. A Public Utility should represent the only known example of a particular category of resource within this property type, or one of the few remaining buildings associated with a specific work program.

4. A Public Utility which included a number of buildings or structures should retain sufficient elements from the project in order to convey a sense of the original scale and the functional relationships of the various components.

5. A Public Utility should possess integrity of location, design, materials, workmanship, and association, and should be without substantial alterations. Original materials and prominent features should remain intact, and any alterations should be modest in scale without impacting or obscuring major facades, elements, or design features. For example, a sewage treatment plant whose original components have been substantially replaced or obscured by new construction may not be considered ineligible. A Public Utility should also represent new construction rather than an addition or expansion.

6. A Public Utility need not retain its original function if historic physical integrity is retained. However, a heating or power plant which now serves as a garage may not be considered eligible if there is a complete loss of historic association. Similarly, a functional plant may not be eligible if it has been substantially enlarged in the modern era and all historic mechanical systems have been replaced.

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I. NAME OF PROPERTY TYPE: EDUCATIONAL FACILITIES

II. Description

Education facilities represent one of the most important property types from the Depression era. In fact, educational building construction was the leading project type of the Public Works Administration. In Minnesota, the PWA sponsored the construction of 252 educational buildings or additions. Similarly, the Works Progress Administration built 216 schools or school additions and improved an additional 1,001 buildings. This property type includes the following structural types:

A. LIBRARIES AND MUSEUMS

Few library or museum buildings were constructed outside of primary or secondary schools or universities. However, one combined library and museum facility was built in New Ulm. This two story Moderne Style structure is built with a local cast stone known as artstone. The building features decorative grillwork and railings and a relief sculpture of a prairie schooner over the museum entrance. Library additions were also constructed, such as the expansion of the Grand Rapids Public Library which included a series of panels with low-relief sculpture on the principal facade. The Longfellow House in Minneapolis was restored as part of a WPA project and used as a library facility.

B. PRIMARY AND SECONDARY SCHOOLS

Representing perhaps the most frequently constructed building type by any of the federal work programs, primary and secondary schools were built throughout Minnesota. A typical building features brick and reinforced concrete construction, yet, a wide variety of designs and building materials were employed. Straightforward frame construction was common in rural areas such as the Baxter Township School in Crow Wing County, or the Grant Valley School in Beltrami County. Several rural school buildings, such as a school

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in District 14 near Morris, feature labor intensive construction with local field stone. Perhaps the most distinctive school building of this type is the picturesque Rothsay School in rural Clay County which includes a wonderful bell tower. Small town schools were often one story Moderne Style structures such as the Adams and Jefferson Schools in Fergus Falls or schools in Norcross and Rockville. The John Clark School in Rockville was built entirely with granite from a local quarry. Large scale schools include buildings constructed in communities such as Winona, Pine Island, and Minneapolis. A typical building is South West High School in Minneapolis, which was built with brick and reinforced concrete. Additions were also frequently built, with gyms and auditoriums the most common type.

## C. UNIVERSITY BUILDINGS

University buildings are generally large multi-story brick and reinforced concrete structures such as the Health Building at the Mankato Teacher's College. The largest collection of Depression Era university buildings in the state is located at the University of Minnesota in Minneapolis and St. Paul. The first building constructed was Pioneer Hall, a dormitory building, designed in the Georgian Revival Style. Other buildings include the Hydraulics Laboratory, located on the Mississippi River, the Museum of Natural History and the Union Building, both Moderne Style structures, the Journalism Building, the Health Sciences Building, an underground garage, a forestry building, and additional dormitories.

## III. SIGNIFICANCE

Educational Facilities are historically significant for their association with the social, political, and economic impact of the Great Depression and the subsequent development of the various federal relief programs which were responsible for their construction. Educational Facilities represent one of the most frequently constructed property types of the Depression Era and one which impacted all areas of the state, from large urban centers to remote rural communities. Modern and complete

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facilities were provided which often replaced inadequate, unsafe, and dilapidated buildings. Buildings were erected which included facilities considered essential in a modern educational program, such as auditoriums, gymnasiums, libraries, science laboratories, art and music rooms, and home economics and industrial arts facilities. In addition, small school districts were sometimes reorganized into larger administrative units in order to provide modern and efficient educational programs.

Educational Facilities are sometimes plain, utilitarian brick buildings which lack architectural distinction. Yet, many well designed buildings were constructed which include the both the prevailing styles of the day as well as unique architectural expressions associated with specific work programs, such as the Works Progress Administration. The programmatic requirements for such programs often resulted in the use of native building materials, which feature irreplaceable labor intensive methods and finely crafted detailing.

IV. REGISTRATION REQUIREMENTS

1. The construction of an Education Facility should have been financed through a grant or loan from the federal government, or federal funds should have been utilized for materials, labor, or supervision.

2. Construction should have been completed by the end of 1941.

3. Due to the large number of surviving resources, and because many Educational Facilities may be considered historically significant for their association with the unprecedented federal response to the Great Depression, the following criteria should also be applied:

a. An Educational Facility should be eligible under National Register Criterion A by representing a particularly important project through the size and scope of the work involved, or by the number of people employed; or the project should represent a significant contribution to the community by providing a new and



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modern building which offered programs, community services, or a physical environment which were previously unavailable. For example, this criteria could be met if a new building replaced a small school and now offered expanded facilities or opportunities. If this criteria is not met, the following criteria should be applied:

b. An Educational Facility should be eligible under National Register Criterion C for incorporating the distinctive characteristics of a type, period, or method of construction, or represent the work of a master, or possess high artistic values. This criteria may be met if a building is constructed with finely crafted indigenous materials, a distinctive construction method often associated with specific federal work programs such as the the Works Progress Administration; or a building may be considered eligible if it contains art or sculpture which has been evaluated as artistically significant; or if this criteria is not met, the following criteria should be applied:

c. An Educational Facility should represent the only known example of a particular category of resource within this property type, or one of the few remaining buildings associated with a specific work program. For example, a sole surviving example of a library may be eligible for its ability to represent this historically significant building type.

4. A building constructed as part of a larger complex, such as a university, may not be considered eligible unless evaluated in terms of the broader context associated with that facility.

5. A building should possess integrity of location, design, materials, workmanship, and association, and should be without substantial alterations. Original materials and prominent features should remain intact, and any alterations should be modest in scale without impacting or obscuring major facades, elements, or design features. For example, a school with a modern addition may be considered eligible if the integrity of the original construction is not impaired. However, if the size of the addition exceeds the original building, or if it encloses a portion of the earlier structure, the building may not be eligible. A building which has been altered might be considered

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eligible if the school represented an important relief project for the community or if the building contained art or sculpture which has been evaluated as artistically significant. A Educational Facility should also represent new construction rather than an additional or expansion.

6. A building need not retain its original function if historic physical integrity is retained.

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I. NAME OF PROPERTY TYPE: CONSERVATION STRUCTURES

II. DESCRIPTION

Conservation structures were constructed throughout Minnesota in order to manage forests, wildlife, and the state's water resources. The WPA alone was responsible for more than 250 conservation projects. This property type is divided into the following structural types:

A. LAKES AND DAMS

Hundreds of dams were constructed throughout the state in order to provide a more dependable domestic water supply and more uniform flows for power production. Lakes or reservoirs were also created to control and store flood waters, which could be conserved in times of drought. The most common dam was the "Type C," a small structure usually constructed at the outlet of a lake. Examples of this type include the Keller Lake dam in St. Paul and the Lake Calhoun dam in Kandiyohi County. Larger scale projects include a dam which forms a small lake at the Oronoco State Wayside and the Silver Lake dam in Rochester.

One of the largest projects of the entire Depression Era was the 2.5 million dollar Lac qui Parle Flood Control Project which created a 40 mile long widening in the Minnesota River and included Big Stone, Swift, Chippewa, and Lac qui Parle Counties. Another major conservation project was the Tri-State Flood Control-Water Conservation Project which involved Minnesota, North Dakota, and South Dakota. This project, which was undertaken by the U.S. Army Corps of Engineers, had first been mentioned in 1892 and plans and surveys were begun in 1918, but it was not until the 1930s that the necessary legislation and monetary support was possible. The project included the 14,400 foot long White Rock Dam and control structure, six miles north of Wheaton, which created a large reservoir for storing flood waters. The dam maintained the level of Lake Traverse and could flood over 23,000

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acres. A levee and diversion channel were also located near Browns Valley.

**B. GAME FARMS**

The Division of Game and Fish of the Department of Conservation constructed several game farms during the 1930s. A small farm was constructed at Madelia but the most extensive project of this type was the Carlos Avery Game Farm near Forest Lake. The game farm was located on the Carlos Avery Game Refuge, an 8,479 acre tract of land which had been acquired in 1933. A large complex of buildings was constructed which included two residences, a garage and power plant building, all frame construction with classical details, and two large shop and service buildings with picturesque dormers, gables, and cupolas. Approximately 20 structures for rearing game birds were also built. When the game farm was dedicated in 1938, it was considered one of the most modern and complete facilities of its kind in the nation.

**C. FORESTRY STATIONS**

Forestry Stations were constructed by both the Civilian Conservation Corps and the Works Progress Administration in state forests as well as urban settings where district headquarters were built, all for the Division of Forestry of the Department of Conservation. The most interesting examples of this structural type are the CCC constructed buildings, which sometimes featured rustic full-log construction, such as the Kabetogama Ranger Station in Kabetogama State Forest. Semi-rustic design, however, was more typical and was generally characterized by building methods which were considerable less labor intensive. Example include forestry stations at Bemidji, Hibbing, Park Rapids, Hackensack, Brainerd, and at Itasca State Park. Each station typically included an office building, with a projecting central bay, covered by a bracketed gable roof. These buildings were constructed with log siding resting on a rock-faced foundation. The interiors usually featured a split stone fireplace. Shops, garages, pump houses, lookout towers, and various service buildings were also constructed.

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**III. SIGNIFICANCE**

Conservation Structures are historically significant for their association with the social, political, and economic impact of the Great Depression and the subsequent development of the various federal relief programs which were responsible for their construction. Conservation Structures represent the first large-scale, state-wide attempt to manage Minnesota's natural resources. These efforts include the establishment of Minnesota's first state forests, the development of the state park system, the construction of large scale dams and structures to control water resources, and the first state-wide effort involving wildlife propagation.

A number of Conservation Structures, such as dams, may embody engineering significant by representing the primary structure in a large-scale conservation project. However, the majority of Minnesota's conservation projects were constructed under the direction of the U.S. Forest Service and the National Park Service, agencies which had chosen the Rustic Style as the appropriate method of construction. For this reason, many Conservation Structures are architecturally significant as exceptional examples of Rustic Style architecture, a style which represents a distinctive and uniquely American architectural style possessing high artistic value. These log and stone constructed buildings feature irreplaceable labor intensive methods and finely crafted detailing based on the design philosophy of the supervising federal agencies.

**IV. REGISTRATION REQUIREMENTS**

The following criteria should be applied in order to place Conservation Structures on the National Register of Historic Places:

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1. The construction of a Conservation Structure should have been financed through a grant or loan from the federal government, or federal funds should have been utilized for materials, labor, or supervision.

2. Construction should have been completed by the end of 1941.

3. Due to the large number of surviving resources, and because many Conservation Structures may be considered historically significant for their association with the unprecedented federal response to the Great Depression, the following criteria should also be applied:

a. An Conservation Structure should be eligible under National Register Criterion A by representing a particularly important project through the size and scope of the work involved, or by the number of people employed; or the project should represent an accomplishment in the field of conservation through a significant effort to manage the state's natural resources. For example, an artificial lake might not be considered eligible unless it was associated with a significant conservation effort or a larger recreational development. If this criteria is not met, the following criteria should be applied:

b. A Conservation Structure should be eligible under National Register Criterion C for incorporating the distinctive characteristics of a type, period, or method of construction, or represent the work of a master, or possess high artistic values. This criteria may be met if a building is constructed with finely crafted indigenous materials, a distinctive construction method often associated with specific Federal work programs such as the the Civilian Conservation Corps or the Works Progress Administration. For example, a minor dam might be ineligible unless it demonstrated engineering significance or was constructed with finely crafted indigenous materials. Or if this criteria is not met, the following criteria should be applied:

c. A Conservation Structure should represent the only known example of a particular category of resource within this property type, or one of the few remaining buildings or structures associated with a specific work program.

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4. A Conservation Structure constructed as part of a larger complex, such as a forestry station or game farm, may not be considered eligible unless a sufficient number of components survive from the original facility which can interpret the historic function of the property. For example, a forestry station would not be considered eligible if only one building of a larger complex survived. However, that individual building might be considered eligible if it represented a significant example of the Rustic Style, such as a building with full-log construction.

5. A Conservation Structure should possess integrity of location, design, setting, materials, workmanship, and association, and should be without substantial alterations. For example, a dam which has been largely reconstructed in the modern era may not be considered eligible. A Conservation Structure should represent new construction rather than an addition or expansion.

6. A building or structure need not retain its original function if historic physical integrity is retained.

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**I. NAME OF PROPERTY TYPE: SOCIAL AND RECREATIONAL FACILITIES**

**II. DESCRIPTION**

Social and Recreational Facilities were one of the most prevalent property types of the period. An increase in leisure time and the impact of the automobile increased both the mobility of the American family and the demand for recreational facilities. The WPA alone was responsible building or improving 358 parks, 513 playgrounds and athletic fields, and 30 swimming pools. This property type includes the following structural types:

**A. AUDITORIUMS AND COMMUNITY BUILDINGS**

Dozens of Auditoriums and Community Buildings were constructed across the state, although they vary considerably in design, scale, and building materials. They range from large scale structures built in Willmar, Deerwood, Red Lake Falls, and Beardsley, to modest facilities constructed in Perley and Gully. Styles include frame construction with simple classical details, straightforward brick construction, Moderne Style structures, and a large number of building which utilized native materials. This last group remains the most distinctive and individual within this structural type as a result of finely crafted labor intensive construction. Squared or split field stone was employed in auditoriums and community buildings in Moorhead, Flom, Oakport, and Deerwood while quarried stone was used in the community building in Stewartville. These buildings may only contain an auditorium or meeting room, but many were multi-functional such as the Deerwood Auditorium which included a library and fire hall.

**B. SPORTS AND RECREATION STRUCTURES**

The largest buildings within this structural type are arenas such as the Winter Sports Arena in Crookston or the sprawling frame arena building in Bemidji. A variety of recreation structures of



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moderate size were also very common. These include field houses, recreation centers, and golf course clubhouses. These buildings were usually brick but native stone was sometimes used and a number of frame structures with minimal stone trim were also constructed. Examples include the Wheeler and Memorial Field Houses in Duluth, recreation buildings in Anoka, Thief River Falls, and Columbia Heights, and golf course clubhouses in Rochester and Hibbing.

Stadiums and grandstands were also constructed, typically in conjunction with athletic fields. These range from utilitarian bleachers built at the Coleraine High School and covered baseball grandstand with stone sidewalls at Chisholm, to a sports stadium in International Falls with a large relief sculpture depicting the virtue of sports. Miscellaneous structures were also built such as a ski jump and toboggan slide in St. Paul. One year the WPA even sponsored the construction of the Ice Palace for the St. Paul Winter Carnival.

## C. SWIMMING POOLS AND BATHHOUSES

Swimming Pools and Bathhouses were a very popular project during the Depression Era. Pools range from small wading pools built in a number of Minneapolis city parks to the more common large scale structures which were built, for example, in Springfield or Pipestone. Bathhouses were usually built in conjunction with swimming pools and were typically characterized by rustic construction or the use of native materials. Examples include cut stone bathhouses at Hawley and Highland Park in St. Paul, or the monumental bathhouse in Marshall which is capped with a pyramidal roof. A Moderne Style bathhouse was built in New Ulm, yet, the most unusual example from the period is perhaps the bathhouse pavilion in Rochester. Built in the Colonial Revival Style, this large pavilion includes a central section complete with a decorative cupola which is flanked by wings connected by covered passageways.

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## D. PARKS AND PARKWAYS

Park construction and improvements range from a 2.5 million dollar expenditure in Minneapolis to the construction of modest shelter buildings in small communities. The unifying factor, however, was the inevitable use of native materials and labor intensive building methods. The National Park Service and the U.S. Forest Service considered rustic architecture the appropriate style for construction in state and national parks and forests, and perhaps these agencies influenced the proliferation of this style on a state-wide basis.

A large scale building program was also conducted in St. Paul where buildings were constructed at Minnehaha, Baker, and Hamline Playgrounds. A colorful pink Mankato stone was utilized in construction which had been salvaged from abandoned piers in the Mississippi River. Particularly well developed park facilities were built in a number of communities. Silver Lake Park in Rochester features a stone shelter and sanitation building, a picturesque frame constructed recreation building, and three finely crafted stone foot bridges. Montevideo Park in Montevideo includes a recreation building with full log construction, a bathhouse and a shelter building, both built with a combination of log and stone, and two stone vehicular bridges. Alexander Ramsey City Park in Redwood Falls, which was formerly a state park, includes shelter and sanitation buildings, stone curbing, and a swayback bridge, all built with stone. Nearby Birch Coulee Memorial Park includes a finely crafted stone arched bridge. A wide variety of buildings were constructed including kitchen shelters, pumphouses, and service and support buildings. Bandstands were sometimes constructed as well, such as in a city park in Cannon Falls.

A notable small rural park is Beltrami County Park near Bemidji. The park contains a T-shaped dining hall which features unusual full log palisade construction and a finely crafted split stone fireplace.

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Parkway construction and improvement was undertaken in Minneapolis with stone faced bridges constructed along Minnehaha Parkway and a series of stairs, bridges, and retaining walls along the West River Road.

## E. ZOOS

Three zoo complexes were constructed in Minnesota by the federal work programs. The Duluth Zoo includes a number of split or squared stone animal houses as well as Rustic Style foot bridges. The most prominent feature at the Como Zoo in St. Paul is a Moderne Style building constructed with stone. A small zoo was also included in the Montevideo Park and contains a number of rustic buildings and structures.

## F. STATE AND COUNTY FAIR BUILDINGS

Construction at state and county fairgrounds ranges from the addition of a single building to the construction of large scale complexes. Notable buildings and structures at county fairgrounds include a log conservation building at the Itasca County Fairgrounds, a grandstand and stone exhibition building at the Olmsted County Fairgrounds, a story and a half stone and frame exhibition building with gabled dormers at the Lincoln County Fairgrounds, and a complex of six buildings and one structure at the Mahnomen County Fairgrounds.

However, the most impressive collection of buildings is located at the State Fair Grounds in St. Paul. The first Depression Era building to be built was the Conservation Building, constructed with milled logs from the Page and Hill Company, which was built by the State Emergency Relief Administration. Later construction by the WPA was decidedly Moderne in Style and featured poured concrete construction. Notable buildings include the Swine Barn, Horse Barn, Poultry Barn, Arcade and Commissary Building, and the 4-H Building. The grandstand was also expanded.

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**G. WAYSIDES AND OVERLOOKS**

Waysides and Overlooks were built to increase the recreational qualities and enjoyment of the state's highways. Overlooks include those structures built to take advantage of a scenic landscape. They are usually paved with stone flagging and are defined by a stone wall with semi-circular projections allowing for an optimum view. Waysides may contain large parking areas, shelters, and sanitation buildings.

The CCC built a number of overlooks along the North Shore of Lake Superior located at the Knife, Temperance, Gooseberry, and Cascade Rivers. In each case, a wall built with native stone defines the overlook. Dozens of additional waysides and overlooks were built by the WPA and the NYA, such as the Watson Wayside near Montevideo, which includes shelter and sanitation buildings, overlooks near Milaca and Stillwater, and the Oronoco State Wayside which includes a finely detailed sanitation building.

The most important wayside project from the period was the extensive Mille Lacs Lake Highway Wayside project by the Civilian Conservation Corps which included development at several locations around the lake. The most prominent structure is a massive stone overlook, resembling a fortress, which projects into Lake Mille Lacs at Garrison. Additional construction included a kitchen shelter, three stone-faced bridges, and a smaller overlook on a nearby lake. Designs were completed for additional buildings and structures which were never executed.

**III. SIGNIFICANCE**

Social and Recreational Facilities are historically significant for their association with the social, political, and economic impact of the Great Depression and the subsequent development of the various federal relief programs which were responsible for their construction. Social and Recreational Facilities often provided the focus for the social, civic, cultural, and recreational activities within a community. These were often the first well-developed facilities of their type. Their development

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was a response to the demand for social and recreational activities as a result of the impact of the automobile and the increasing leisure time of the American people. Facilities administered by state agencies represent the first state wide efforts to provide state owned and centrally administered recreational areas to a large segment of the population.

Social and Recreational Facilities are architecturally significant as outstanding examples of the use of native building materials in the construction process. These include significant examples of the Rustic Style as well as finely crafted masonry construction. Parks, parkways, and waysides are often significant for incorporating the principles of landscape architecture into the design process in an attempt to achieve non-intrusive and environmentally sensitive development.

## IV. REGISTRATION REQUIREMENTS

The following criteria should be applied in order to place Social and Recreational Facilities on the National Register of Historic Places:

1. The construction of a Social or Recreational Facility should have been financed through a grant or loan from the federal government, or federal funds should have been utilized for materials, labor, or supervision.
2. Construction should have been completed by the end of 1941.
3. Due to the large number of surviving resources, and because many Social and Recreational Facilities may be considered historically significant for their association with the unprecedented federal response to the Great Depression, the following criteria should also be applied:

a. A Social or Recreational Facility should be eligible under National Register Criterion A as a particularly important project through the size and scope of the work involved, or by the number of people employed; or the project should represent a

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significant contribution to the community by providing a new and modern facility which offered programs, amenities, recreational activities, or community services which were previously unavailable; or if this criteria is not met, the following criteria should be applied:

b. A Social or Recreational Facility should be eligible under National Register Criterion C for incorporating the distinctive characteristics of a type, period, or method of construction, or represent the work of a master, or possess high artistic values. This criteria may be met if a building is constructed with finely crafted indigenous materials, a distinctive construction method often associated with specific Federal work programs such as the Civilian Conservation Corps or the Works Progress Administration; or a building may be considered eligible if it contains art of sculpture which has been evaluated as artistically significant. For example, a recreational building featuring unusual full log palisade construction may be considered eligible, however, an undistinguished stone shelter building may not. Similarly, a wayside defined by only a low split stone wall may not be eligible. Or if this criteria is not met, the following criteria should be applied:

c. A Social or Recreational Facility should represent the only known example of a particular category of resource within this property type, or one of the few remaining buildings associated with a specific work program.

4. A building or structure constructed as part of a larger complex, such as a park, parkway, wayside, or zoo, may not be considered eligible unless the original landscape design and spatial and functional relationships remain intact. In such cases, the property should be nominated as an historic district. In addition, grandstands, ski jumps, and other sports structures might not be eligible unless they represent components of a larger sports complex or demonstrate architectural or engineering significance. Similarly, a single building constructed at a park or fairgrounds may not be eligible, yet, there may be situations where sufficient components exist to form an historic district.

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5. A Social or Recreational Facility should possess integrity of location, design, materials, workmanship, and association, and should be without major alterations. Original materials and prominent features should remain intact, and any alterations should be modest in scale without impacting or obscuring major facades, elements, or design features. For example, a stone bath house might be considered ineligible because the accompanying swimming pool has been infilled. A building or structure should represent new construction rather than an additional or expansion.

6. A building or structure need not retain its original function if historic physical integrity is retained.

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**I. NAME OF PROPERTY TYPE: INSTITUTIONAL BUILDINGS AND SOCIAL WELFARE PROJECTS**

**II. DESCRIPTION**

Institutional Buildings and Social Welfare Projects include those buildings and structures associated with institutional facilities and social welfare programs. This property type is divided into the following structural types:

**A. HOSPITALS**

Hospital buildings were constructed in several communities in the 1930s. Moderate size two story brick structures with stone trim were built in Warroad, Glenwood, and Sleepy Eye. A one story building constructed at Bigfork (now razed) was the first modern medical facility in the community. Additions were also built, such as the expansion of the Itasca Memorial Hospital in Grand Rapids.

State facilities were also expanded during the period. A four story infirmary was built at the State Soldiers Home, and new buildings were constructed at the Ramsey County Children's (Tuberculosis) Preventorium, and the Cambridge and St. Peter State Hospitals. The federal government constructed a building for Indian patients at the State Sanatorium for Consumptives at Ah-Gwah-Ching (Walker).

Yet, the largest Depression Era work relief project undertaken at a state hospital was the fourth state hospital for the insane at Moose Lake, built as a PWA project in 1936-38. This complex of massive brick buildings features a rather sombre interpretation of the Colonial Revival Style and represents one of the largest PWA projects in the state.



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**B. COUNTY HOMES**

A County Home for the indigent was built in Grand Rapids by the Public Works Administration. The building is a plain two story brick structure.

**C. HOUSING PROJECTS**

Large scale housing projects involving slum clearance were promoted by the Public Works Administration on a nationwide basis. However, due to a variety of legal problems, the responsibility for housing was later turned over to other governmental agencies.

One PWA development was the 3.5 million dollar Sumner Field Housing Project constructed in Minneapolis. A 23 acre site was cleared and 694 housing units were built in the form of rather plain two story brick apartments and row houses. All units were required to have cross-ventilation, running water, private baths, and a central heating plant; community buildings, and stores were also built, all arranged around landscaped open spaces. The PWA designed standard floor plans with specified minimum square footage for each room which were used long after the housing program came to an end. Housing projects were also contemplated for both St. Paul and St. Cloud.

A housing project was also built in Duluth by the Subsistence Home Division of the U.S. Department of the Interior. Forty units with seven different plans were constructed. A housing project was also built in Austin.

**D. WORK CAMP BUILDINGS AND STRUCTURES**

This structural type includes those buildings and structures constructed to house relief workers and to conduct the operation of various work projects. Such work camp facilities were built by the Civilian Conservation Corps, the State Emergency Relief Administration, and the Works Progress Administration. With the exception of those camps operated by the CCC, work camps were

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usually built to house transient men. The camps usually included barracks, mess halls, recreation buildings, latrines, maintenance and equipment buildings, offices, and staff quarters. However, because work camp buildings were considered temporary or even portable, few examples survive outside of state parks and national forests. Several foundations and a fireplace survive from one of the Minnesota Valley work camps located near Fort Snelling and a WPA camp at Lake Shetek, although no longer in state hands, is now used as a church camp. Additional examples may be identified within Minnesota's state forests.

**III. SIGNIFICANCE**

Institutional Buildings and Social Welfare Projects are historically significant for their association with the social, political, and economic impact of the Great Depression and the subsequent development of the various federal relief programs which were responsible for their construction. Institutional Buildings and Social Welfare Projects are significant for providing services which ranged from the first permanent hospitals to transient camps, facilities which may have been previously unavailable. Completely new institutional complexes were constructed and existing facilities were expanded and modernized. These activities established the precedent for federal responsibility for the administration of human services. They also represent the federal government's first attempt to provide public housing and to address the unemployment problem through work camp environments.

Institutional Buildings and Social Welfare Projects are architecturally significant as prominent and visually significant buildings based on the philosophy of institutional care during the Depression Era. Work camp buildings and structures are significant as the few surviving resources associated with such Depression Era programs.

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## IV. REGISTRATION REQUIREMENTS

The following criteria should be applied in order to place Institutional Buildings and Social Projects on the National Register of Historic Places:

1. The construction of an Institutional Building or Social Welfare Project should have been financed through a grant or loan from the federal government, or federal funds should have been utilized for materials, labor, or supervision.

2. Construction should have been completed by the end of 1941.

3. Because many Institutional Buildings and Social Welfare Projects may be considered historically significant for their association with the unprecedented federal response to the Great Depression, the following criteria should also be applied:

a. An Institutional Building or Social Welfare Project should be eligible under National Register Criterion A as a particularly important project through the size and scope of the work involved, or by the number of people employed; or the project should represent a significant contribution to the community by providing a new and modern facility which offered programs or services which were previously unavailable; or if this criteria is not met, the following criteria should be applied:

b. An Institutional Building or Social Welfare Project should be eligible under National Register Criterion C for incorporating the distinctive characteristics of a type, period, or method of construction, or represent the work of a master, or possess high artistic values. This criteria may be met if a building is constructed with finely crafted indigenous materials, a distinctive construction method often associated with specific federal work programs such as the Works Progress Administration; or a building may be considered eligible if it contains art of

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sculpture which has been evaluated as artistically significant; or if this criteria is not met, the following criteria should be applied:

c. A Institutional Building or Social Welfare Project should represent the only known example of a particular category of resource within this property type, or one of the few remaining buildings associated with a specific work program.

4. A building or structure constructed as part of a larger complex, such as hospital facility or housing project, may not be considered eligible unless the original design and spatial and functional relationships remain intact. In such cases, the property should be nominated as an historic district. In addition, a building constructed within an existing complex may need to be evaluated in terms of the broader context of that facility. For example, a building constructed at an existing hospital or sanatorium complex may not be considered eligible until it has been evaluated under the broader context associated with that facility. However, a newly constructed complex may be eligible as an historic district. Similarly, a large housing project may be considered eligible if a significant portion of the complex remains intact. If this surviving portion can depict the original design and configuration, the property may be nominated as an historic district.

5. An Institutional Building or Social Welfare Project should possess integrity of location, design, materials, workmanship, and association, and should be without substantial alterations. Original materials and prominent features should remain intact, and any alterations should be modest in scale without impacting or obscuring major facades, elements, or design features. For example, a hospital with a large addition which is unsympathetic to the original construction may be considered ineligible. A building should represent new construction rather than an additional or expansion.

6. A building need not retain its original function if historic physical integrity is retained.

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7. Due to the scarcity of surviving work camps, any extant buildings associated with a Civilian Conservation Corps or Transient Relief Administration camp should automatically be considered eligible for the National Register. Minimal physical integrity may be acceptable if the building still reflects the design features usually associated with work camp buildings, such as straightforward frame construction with horizontal or vertical siding, gable roofs with a low pitch, and small pane casement sash. In addition, if sufficient footings or foundations walls exist from the majority of a camp's buildings (which would usually total approximately fifteen) and these structures can interpret the operation of the camp, the property should be nominated as an historic district.

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I. NAME OF PROPERTY TYPE: TRANSPORTATION SYSTEMS

II. DESCRIPTION

Projects involving Transportation Systems comprise one of the largest components of the federal work programs. Their importance actually increased late in the period when attention was focused on defense projects in preparation for World War II. This property type is divided into the following structural types:

A. HIGHWAYS, STREETS, AND SIDEWALK PROJECTS

Highway, street, and sidewalk construction accounted for the largest share of federal expenditures from the period. The WPA alone constructed 578 miles of sidewalks, and built or improved 28,000 miles of roads. This represents over one-third of the entire WPA expenditure for the state.

B. AIRPORT FACILITIES

Landing fields were built at St. Paul, Springfield, Grand Marais, Slayton, Baudette, Warroad, Duluth, and Camp Ripley. Hangars were constructed at Marshall and Bemidji. Concrete runways were built at Wold Chamberlain Field in Minneapolis and a Moderne Terminal Building was constructed at Holman Field in St. Paul.

III. SIGNIFICANCE

Transportation Systems are historically significant for their association with the social, political, and economic impact of the Great Depression and the subsequent development of the various federal relief programs which were responsible for their construction. Transportation Systems are also significant for

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providing a major expansion of both the size and quality of the state's highway system. Transportation Systems also provided a major source of work relief. Highway construction, for example, was a project which required minimal supervision, and which could be initiated almost immediately, without extensive planning.

Highways may be architecturally significant for incorporating the principles of landscape design in the construction process.

## IV. REGISTRATION REQUIREMENTS

The following criteria should be applied in order to place Transportation Systems on the National Register of Historic Places:

1. The construction of a Transportation System should have been financed through a grant or loan from the federal government, or federal funds should have been utilized for materials, labor, or supervision.

2. Construction should have been completed by the end of 1941.

3. Because many Transportation Systems may be considered historically significant for their association with the unprecedented federal response to the Great Depression, the following criteria should also be applied:

- a. A Transportation System should be eligible under National Register Criterion A by providing a particularly important change in the existing transportation pattern. This may be represented by a newly developed farm-to-market road which may have provided year-around connections across routes which were previously impassable for portions of the year, a highway incorporating the principles of landscape design into the construction process, a road system developed for a specific purpose such as providing improved access to the resort areas of the state, or an airport which was newly developed or significantly expanded; or if this criteria is not met, the following criteria should be applied:

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b. A Transportation System should be eligible under National Register Criterion C for incorporating the distinctive characteristics of a type, period, or method of construction, or represent the work of a master, or possess high artistic values. A highway may be eligible because of a significant landscape design; or if this criteria is not met, the following criteria should be applied:

c. A Transportation System may be eligible for listing on the National Register if it represents the only known example in the state of a particular category of resource within this property type, or one of the few remaining projects associated with a specific work program.

4. A Transportation System should possess integrity of location, design, setting, materials, workmanship, feeling, and association. A highway should retain the essential features that identify it as such. However, because pavement is an inherently fragile component that is routinely covered over and replaced, original pavement is not a requirement although it would be considered a desired feature. In addition, an airport runway should retain the original length and configuration. Nominated highway segments should also be of sufficient length to convey the feeling and setting of a continuous road. The setting should reflect the general character of the period of significance.

5. A Transportation System consisting of a number of resources, such as an airport with a runway and terminal building, may not be considered eligible unless a sufficient number of components survive from the original facility which can interpret the historic function of the property.

6. A Transportation System need not retain its original function if historic physical integrity is retained.



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## SUMMARY OF IDENTIFICATION AND EVALUATION METHODS

The Multiple Property Documentation Form entitled Federal Relief Construction in Minnesota, 1933-1941 was developed in order to analyze the broad context of federally assisted Depression Era construction beyond those resources already evaluated in a previous Multiple Property Documentation Form entitled Minnesota State Park CCC/WPA/Rustic Style Historic Resources. In addition to this previous document, bridge construction from the period had also been analyzed and a State-Owned Building Survey completed by the State Historic Preservation Office in 1986 also referenced a variety of federal relief projects.

This study began with a library search which revealed a lack of comprehensive information concerning federal relief construction in Minnesota. As a result, the State Archives within the Archives and Manuscripts Division of the Minnesota Historical Society were reviewed to determine which collections might yield contextual information about the period under consideration. It was found that detailed reports and administrative files documented Depression Era activities of a number of state agencies such as the Department of Conservation, the Department of Highways, and the State Board of Control, which were all major recipients of federal assistance. In addition, administrative files of the Works Progress Administration were also located, as well as the personal papers of several key individuals within that agency. The National Archives was also contacted in order to determine which records might be found within that repository.

Specific information about federal relief construction was found within the existing country survey files of the State Historic Preservation Office, in publications from the period by agencies such as the Public Works Administration and the Works Progress Administration, and from a regional construction periodical entitled the Improvement Bulletin. The Improvement Bulletin proved to be an invaluable source of information by providing detailed accounts of the establishment and operation of nearly every federal relief program involved in construction. The rules and regulations for each program were published and sample application forms were included and described. Nearly every

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construction project from the period was noted along with the federal program which provided assistance. Project descriptions documented the significance of all but forgotten work programs such as the State Emergency Relief Administration.

Limited field work was also completed in order to identify important federal relief projects. This phase of the project revealed that nearly every community surveyed contained some type of federally assisted construction. A remarkable variety of property types were also identified. Individuals directly associated with these activities were also interviewed.

Based on this information, it was determined that one historic context would be developed which would examine the six most significant work programs from the period. Seven property types associated with these contexts as well as 29 corresponding structural types were also identified. Registration requirements for these properties were rather restrictive due to the large number of surviving resources. The standards of integrity for these properties were based on National Register standards for assessing integrity.

Seven National Registers Nominations are being prepared in conjunction with this Multiple Property Documentation Form for properties which document the more important federal relief programs from the period and the most significant property types constructed.

Rolf T. Anderson, who completed this study, has a B.A. in Architecture from the University of Minnesota.

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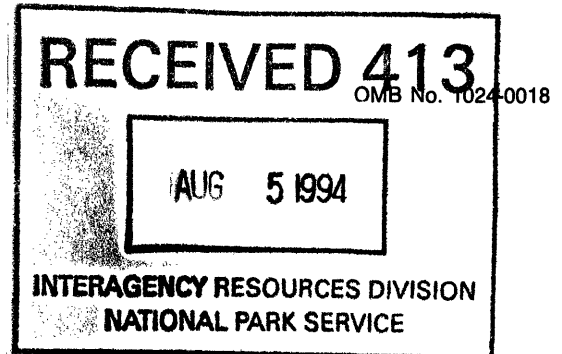
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Multiple Property Documentation Form



This form is used for documenting multiple property groups relating to one or several historic contexts. See instructions in *How to Complete the Multiple Property Documentation Form* (National Register Bulletin 16B). Complete each item by entering the requested information. For additional space, use continuation sheets (Form 10-900-a). Use a typewriter, word processor, or computer to complete all items.

\_\_\_ New Submission    X Amended Submission

**A. Name of Multiple Property Listing**

Federal Relief Construction in Minnesota, 1933-1941

**B. Associated Historic Contexts**

(Name each associated historic context, identifying theme, geographical area, and chronological period for each.)

Federal Relief Programs in Minnesota, 1933-1941

**C. Form Prepared by**

name/title Rolf T. Anderson  
organization \_\_\_\_\_ date August 30, 1993  
street & number 212 W. 36th Street telephone 612/824-7807  
city or town Minneapolis state Minnesota zip code 55408

**D. Certification**

As the designated authority under the National Historic Preservation Act of 1966, as amended, I hereby certify that this documentation form meets the National Register documentation standards and sets forth requirements for the listing of related properties consistent with the National Register criteria. This submission meets the procedural and professional requirements set forth in 36 CFR Part 60 and the Secretary of the Interior's Standards and Guidelines for Archeology and Historic Preservation. (☐ See continuation sheet for additional comments.)

Sam Markle  
Signature and title of certifying official  
U.S. Fish and Wildlife Service  
State or Federal agency and bureau

30 June 1994  
Date

I hereby certify that this multiple property documentation form has been approved by the National Register as a basis for evaluating related properties for listing in the National Register.

Beth Boland  
Signature of the Keeper

9/14/94  
Date of Action



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## Table of Contents for Written Narrative

Provide the following information on continuation sheets. Cite the letter and the title before each section of the narrative. Assign page numbers according to the instructions for continuation sheets in *How to Complete the Multiple Property Documentation Form* (National Register Bulletin 16B). Fill in page numbers for each section in the space below.

### Page Numbers

**E. Statement of Historic Contexts**

(If more than one historic context is documented, present them in sequential order.)

**F. Associated Property Types**

(Provide description, significance, and registration requirements.)

**G. Geographical Data**

**H. Summary of Identification and Evaluation Methods**

(Discuss the methods used in developing the multiple property listing.)

**I. Major Bibliographical References**

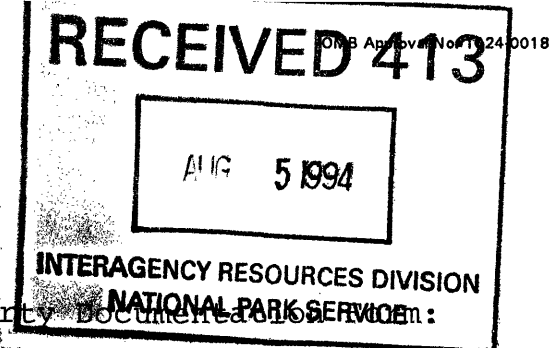
(List major written works and primary location of additional documentation: State Historic Preservation Office, other State agency, Federal agency, local government, university, or other, specifying repository.)

**Paperwork Reduction Act Statement:** This information is being collected for applications to the National Register of Historic Places to nominate properties for listing or determine eligibility for listing, to list properties, and to amend existing listings. Response to this request is required to obtain a benefit in accordance with the National Historic Preservation Act, as amended (16 U.S.C. 470 *et seq.*).

**Estimated Burden Statement:** Public reporting burden for this form is estimated to average 18.1 hours per response including the time for reviewing instructions, gathering and maintaining data, and completing and reviewing the form. Direct comments regarding this burden estimate or any aspect of this form to the Chief, Administrative Services Division, National Park Service, P.O. Box 37127, Washington, DC 20013-7127; and the Office of Management and Budget, Paperwork Reductions Project (1024-0018), Washington, DC 20503.

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Multiple Property Documentation Form:

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1933-1941

Amended Submission: Included in this amendment is a chapter entitled:

VII. The Resettlement Administration  
Section E, pages 79-94

As the designated authority under the National Historic Preservation Act, as amended, I hereby certify that this documentation form meets the National Register documentation standards and sets forth requirements consistent with the National Register criteria. This submission meets the procedural and professional requirements set forth in 36 CFR Part 60 and the Secretary of the Interior's Standards and Guidelines for Archaeology and Historic Preservation.

Signature and title of certifying official  
Deputy State Historic Preservation Officer

Ian R. Stewart

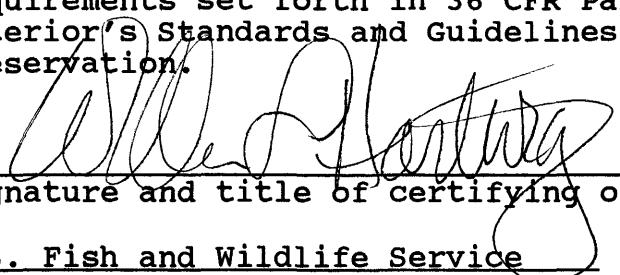
11/20/94  
Date

Minnesota Historical Society  
State or Federal agency and bureau

**D. Certification**

As the designated authority under the National Historic Preservation Act of 1966, as amended, I hereby certify that this documentation form meets the National Register documentation standards and sets forth requirements for the listing of related properties consistent with the National Register criteria.

This submission meets the procedural and professional requirements set forth in 36 CFR Part 60 and the Secretary of the Interior's Standards and Guidelines for Archeology and Historic Preservation.

  
\_\_\_\_\_  
Signature and title of certifying official

7/29/94  
\_\_\_\_\_  
Date

U.S. Fish and Wildlife Service  
State or Federal agency and bureau

United States Department of the Interior  
National Park Service

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### VII. The Resettlement Administration

The Resettlement Administration was established by President Franklin D. Roosevelt on April 30, 1935 by Executive Order No. 7027 which stated:

By virtue of and pursuant to the authority vested in me under the Emergency Relief Appropriation Act of 1935, approved April 8, 1935 (Public Res. No. 11, 74th Cong.), I hereby establish an agency within the Government to be known as the "Resettlement Administration", and appoint Rexford G. Tugwell, Under Secretary of Agriculture, as administrator thereof, to serve without additional compensation.

I hereby prescribe the following functions and duties of the said Resettlement Administration to be exercised and performed by the Administrator thereof:

(a) To administer approved projects involving resettlement of destitute or low-income families from rural and urban areas, including the establishment, maintenance, and operation, in such connection, of communities in rural and suburban areas.

(b) To initiate and administer a program of approved projects with respect to soil erosion, stream pollution, seacoast erosion, reforestation, forestation, and flood control.

(c) To make loans as authorized under the said Emergency Relief Appropriation Act of 1935 to finance, in whole or in part, the purchase of farm lands and necessary equipment by farmers, farm tenants, croppers, or farm laborers.

In the performance of such duties and functions the Administrator is hereby authorized to employ the services and means mentioned in subdivision (a) of section 3 of said Emergency Relief Appropriation Act of 1935, to the extent therein provided, and, within the limitations prescribed by said section, to exercise the authority with respect to personnel conferred by subdivision (b) thereof.

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To the extent necessary to carry out the provisions of this Executive order the Administrator is authorized to acquire, by purchase or by the power of eminent domain, any real property or any interest therein and improve, develop, grant, sell, lease (with or without the privilege of purchasing), or otherwise dispose of any such property or interest therein.

The acquisition of articles, materials, and supplies for use in carrying out any project authorized by this Executive order shall be subject to the provisions of title III of the Treasury and Post Office Appropriation Act, fiscal year 1934 (47 Stat. 1489, 1520).

For the administrative expenses of the Resettlement Administration there is hereby allocated to the Administration from the appropriation made by the Emergency Relief Appropriation Act of 1935 the sum of \$250,000. Separate allocations will be made hereafter for each of the authorized activities as may be needed.

The fundamental purpose of the Resettlement Administration was to attack the problem of chronic rural poverty. To head this program Roosevelt chose Rexford G. Tugwell, the Undersecretary of Agricultural and a former economics professor at Columbia University, who had persistently proposed solutions for permanent land reform. Tugwell believed that exhausted lands should be taken out of production and fatigued farmers should either be relocated on more productive land or encouraged and helped to enter industry. With over one million farm families on relief, efforts to maintain marginal farmers on their submarginal lands was pointless, and these lands could be best converted to new, economically viable uses. Here was an opportunity for experimentation in land-use planning, cooperative farming, community planning, massive retirement of lands, and the restoration of life to exhausted people.<sup>92</sup>

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<sup>92</sup>Sidney Baldwin, Poverty and Politics: The Rise and Decline of the Farm Security Administration. (Chapel Hill: The University of North Carolina Press, 1968), p. 88.

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A number of New Deal programs, including the Agricultural Adjustment Administration, the Federal Emergency Relief Administration, and the Division of Subsistence Homesteads of the Department of the Interior, had already begun to address these problems. However, it was clear that not one of these agencies offered any real promise of effectively dealing with farm poverty. It was hoped that the Resettlement Administration could offer a concentrated approach, and all existing related programs were transferred to the new agency. On April 30 Roosevelt transferred the land program of the Federal Emergency Relief Administration to the Resettlement Administration and on May 15 he transferred the Division of Subsistence Homesteads. The Land Policy Section of the Agricultural Adjustment Administration was moved to the Resettlement Administration on June 1, furnishing many of the personnel for continuing the submarginal land program. On June 30 the Rural Rehabilitation Division of the Federal Emergency Relief Administration, including the state corporations and communities, was transferred.

The Resettlement Administration was thus a repository for a multitude of New Deal programs. It had the task of carrying on rural relief or rehabilitation, of continuing the whole land utilization program, and of continuing and extending the New Deal community building program through both rural and urban resettlement. Rural rehabilitation was soon to include loans to individuals, loans to cooperatives, grants to destitute farmers, and a debt-adjustment program. An additional problem was the care of migratory workers. An editorial comment on the order creating the Resettlement Administration might have read, "To rearrange the earth and the people thereof and devote surplus time and money, if any, to a rehabilitation of the Solar System."<sup>93</sup>

The agency began with a staff of 12 employees on May 1, 1935 but by the end of the year it employed 16,386 people, 3,524 in the Washington office and 12,862 scattered around the country. Of these, 4,200 came from nine different agencies. In seven months the Resettlement Administration became a major federal agency which, in terms of size, scope, and cost, was rivaled only by the

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<sup>93</sup>Paul K. Conkin, Tomorrow A New World: The New Deal Community Program. (Ithaca: Cornell University Press, 1959), p. 153.

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Veteran's Administration and the Departments of Treasury, War, Post Office, Navy, Interior, and Agriculture.<sup>94</sup> Twelve regional offices were also established, with Minnesota located in Region II along with Wisconsin and Michigan. Small offices were set up in each state and in most counties.

The Resettlement Administration was organized into the following four main divisions:

Rural Rehabilitation - This division included five closely related programs; a standard loan program based on combining credit and farm and home planning; an emergency grant program for subsistence needs; a feed and seed loan program; a farm debt adjustment program designed to assist the farm debtor and his creditor in reaching an equitable settlement; and a cooperative loan program to assist client families in organizing or participating in various kinds of cooperative enterprises.

Land Utilization - This division was responsible for planning and executing a program of submarginal land retirement and improvement involving more than 275 land acquisition projects providing for the eventual purchase of 20 million acres of land and the resettlement of more than 20,000 dislocated farm families.

Rural Resettlement - This division was considered a complement to the land utilization program since the families occupying the purchased lands had to be relocated. The Rural Resettlement division established a variety of model rural communities, individual farms, small garden home projects for farm laborers, and migratory labor camps.

A total of 37 rural and urban communities were initiated by the Resettlement Administration, which also inherited 34 communities from the Division of Subsistence Homesteads and 28 communities initiated by the Federal Emergency Relief Administration, only a few of which had been completed before their transfer to the RA. Nearly 11,000 housing units were constructed in the 99 planned communities.

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<sup>94</sup>Baldwin, p. 103.

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Suburban Resettlement - The Suburban Resettlement division constructed three model suburban communities for low-income city workers and farmers which were named Greenbelt, near Washington, D.C.; Greenhills near Cincinnati, Ohio; and Greendale, near Milwaukee, Wisconsin. A fourth community, Greenbrook, near New Brunswick, New Jersey, was never completed as a result of a lawsuit by a local group which opposed the project. Rexford Tugwell had long been interested in the concept of satellite cities and he wrote in 1935 that, "My idea is to go just outside centers of population, pick up cheap land, build a whole community and entice people into it. Then go back into the cities and tear down whole slums and make them parks." The offices for Suburban Resettlement were located in the Evelyn Walsh McLean mansion on Massachusetts Avenue in Washington, D.C. From its high-ceilinged rooms with brocaded walls and marble emerged the brilliant conception of the Greenbelt towns, complete garden suburb communities, protected by encircling belts of farm and woodland, easily accessible to cities, but with the space and tranquillity of the countryside.<sup>95</sup>

Twelve additional divisions were also established to provide technical and managerial support including Management, Construction, Special Plans, Legal, Public Health, Procedure, Information, Labor Relations, Business Management, Personnel, Investigation, and Finance and Control.

After one year in operation, the Resettlement Administration had spent or obligated \$205,000,000. Its many activities were documented in the First Annual Report, a 173 page publication with dramatic photographs, a fifty-three page statistical section, and a multi-colored pictorial map. The report also described a documentary film completed by the agency entitled, "The Plow That Broke the Plains." The film was selected by the Museum of Modern Art Film Library as the finest documentary ever made by the federal government.

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<sup>95</sup>Arthur M. Schlesinger, Jr., The Age of Roosevelt: The Coming of the New Deal. (Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1958), pp. 370-71.



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However, as early as late summer 1935, the Resettlement Administration already found itself under attack. Particularly among those who opposed the New Deal, the activities of the Resettlement Administration were considered threatening to "the American way of life" and cooperative farms and industries were called "communistic." Much hostility was directed to the resettlement projects and the model communities. Senator Harry F. Byrd of Virginia, for instance, condemned what he believed were silly extravagances and costly absurdities, such as electricity, refrigerators, factory-made furniture, and indoor plumbing for "simple mountain people." Senator McKellar of Tennessee criticized the agency for constructing "wonderfully fine stone houses or mansions" on top of the Cumberland Mountains, and he resented the idea of a relief worker "living in a stone mansion very much handsomer than I ever lived in in my life." Projects were also attacked due to haste in planning, expensive experimentation in construction methods, and relatively high housing standards, all of which tended to increase construction costs.<sup>96</sup> Some resettlement projects were economic failures, particularly "stranded communities" where the RA provided not only housing but also attempted to develop sources of employment and attract industry. The most controversial of these projects was Arthurville, a community for unemployed coal miners at Reedsville, West Virginia. The lawsuit over Greenbrook was also problematic. Some of the criticism was completely unwarranted because many of the projects had been initiated by the agencies which preceded the Resettlement Administration, but the RA became the easiest target. Existing governmental agencies involved with agriculture were resentful of the Resettlement Administration since it appeared it would become a permanent agency, and organizations representing well-established farmers criticized the assistance provided to low-income farm families. Finally, there was the problem of legitimacy. The Resettlement Administration was operating largely as a result of presidential directive rather than legislative authorization.

The Resettlement Administration reacted to these criticisms by shifting its primary emphasis away from land reform and resettlement to rural rehabilitation, in which farmers would be

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<sup>96</sup>Baldwin, pp. 106-111.

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assisted on their present lands. Existing model communities were completed but no new projects were initiated. It had already been recognized that large scale land acquisition and retirement was costly and difficult, and many people were reluctant to relocate. Accordingly, the infiltration method of resettlement became favored in which farmers were settled on scattered individual sites, rather than on farm colonies or model communities, and this was the case in all of Minnesota's rural resettlement projects. Tugwell himself had questioned the merits of subsistence homesteads, which combined part-time employment with part-time farming, wondering whether they would truly result in permanent solutions. By June 1936 this shift was well underway with 536,302 active rural rehabilitation client families, representing more than two million farm people, approximately 8 per cent of the total farm population in the United States. The agency had expended approximately 95 million dollars on the program, which was 60 per cent of the total budget for the year.<sup>97</sup> As of June 30, 1936, there were 34,578 Rural Rehabilitation clients in Minnesota.

However, the criticism continued, with much of it directed at Tugwell, possibly the most controversial member of the Roosevelt administration. Tugwell resigned as head of the Resettlement Administration on December 31, 1936 and named his deputy administrator, Dr. Will W. Alexander, to replace him. At the same time the Resettlement Administration was transferred into the Department of Agriculture, in part, to provide the agency with a measure of legitimacy. Concurrently, attention was focusing on the problem of the tenant farmer, representing two out of every five farmers in the United States, and who faced chronic insecurity. A special Presidential Committee on Farm Tenancy endorsed the initial work of the Resettlement Administration in this area but called for an expanded organization within the Department of Agriculture which would continue land retirement, resettlement, and rehabilitation, but would also purchase land and sell it to qualified tenants. The community housing program, however, was eliminated. The tenant-purchase program was authorized by the Bankhead-Jones Act which passed both houses of Congress in July 1937. On September 1, 1937 the Farm Security Administration was established to carry out the program. This was

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<sup>97</sup>Baldwin, p. 108.

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in actuality the Resettlement Administration under a different name for the personnel remained unchanged and the work on current projects continued. The Farm Security Administration continued the resettlement and rehabilitation programs while the Land Utilization Division returned to its old home in the Bureau of Agricultural Economics, also in the Department of Agriculture. However, at least in Minnesota, the land utilization aspect of a number of the resettlement projects, such the Pine Island and Beltrami Island Projects, was completed under the direction of the Soil Conservation Service rather than directly by the BAE. Alexander continued as head of the Farm Security Administration but was later replaced by C. B. Baldwin, who had been an assistant administrator under Tugwell. Both men visited the northern Minnesota resettlement projects in July 1937. Baldwin remained with the FSA until 1943 and thus Tugwell's philosophical vision remained somewhat in place until that time. In 1946 the Farm Security Administration was abolished and replaced by the Farmers Home Administration.

A wide variety of projects were undertaken in Minnesota by the Resettlement Administration and its predecessors, including housing, resettlement, and land utilization projects. One of the earliest projects to have been contemplated was reported in the Improvement Bulletin on January 26, 1934 and involved the establishment of ten settlements in the Superior National Forest, each for 200 families, complete with schools, stores, a post office and community building. This subsistence homestead project was described by the regional forester from Milwaukee and was estimated to cost two million dollars, although it not believed that the project ever left the drawing board. The following projects are among those which were completed in the state:

### Housing

Austin Acres - This project was initiated by the Division of Subsistence Homesteads of the Department of the Interior and was described in the Improvement Bulletin on March 2, 1934 with the following article:

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The Federal Subsistence Homestead Bureau will loan \$125,000 to Austin Homesteads, Inc., to finance the purchase of land now under option and the construction of low-cost houses to be built adjacent to Austin. Fifty well-built homes will be constructed and sold to working men on long amortization plans. The homes will each be accompanied by from three to five acres of land, depending on the size of the family. The cost will average \$46.75 per acre. Approximately 40 acres will be set aside for community purposes, including a park, a common pasture and a wood-lot.

There exists a shortage of well-built low-cost houses in Austin. Prior to the granting of the loan, Victor Christgau and Jay Hormel discussed it at Washington with Dr. M. L. Wilson (the director of the Division of Subsistence Homesteads) of Bozeman, Mont.

The purpose of the project was to provide affordable housing to industrial workers who might be unable to purchase their own homes. Income would be supplemented by gardening or small-scale farming through which the homeowners could meet a significant portion of their subsistence needs. The project was unique in that it was located near a one-factory town and for its sponsorship by the president of that factory, George A. Hormel of the Hormel meat packing company. Seventy per cent of the homesteaders at Austin were to be Hormel employees. This reflected the belief by the Division of Subsistence Homesteads that it was necessary to cooperate with industry in setting up part-time farming, part-time industrial communities.

Eighteen buildings had been constructed when the Resettlement Administration assumed responsibility for completion of the project. Forty-four units were ultimately constructed at a total cost of \$213,227.87, or a unit cost of \$4,846.<sup>98</sup> The First Annual Report of the Resettlement featured a photograph of a homesteader at Austin Acres canning home grown vegetables in her new kitchen.

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<sup>98</sup>Conklin, p. 333.

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Albert Lea Acres - This project was initiated by the Federal Emergency Relief Administration and included 14 housing units on 5 acre tracts of land with a total project cost of \$38,160.68, or a unit cost of \$2,726.00. Of the 99 New Deal communities constructed nation-wide, only one other project was constructed for a lower unit cost. Like Austin Acres, this project was considered an industrial community which combined employment with subsistence farming.

Duluth Homesteads: - The third of Minnesota's housing communities was originated by the Division of Subsistence Homesteads, although not much more than land acquisition had been completed by the time the project was transferred to the Resettlement Administration. The RA completely redesigned the project and substantially improved the quality of design and construction. The First Annual Report of the Resettlement Administration described the project as follows:

...Duluth Homesteads is located in St. Louis County about 7 miles from the business center of Duluth, Minn. The Government now owns 400 acres of land on which it had been proposed to build about 40 homesteads. Some work had been done prior to the establishment of the Resettlement Administration. Shallow wells had been dug, and a bisecting road approximately 1 mile long had been graded. Upon investigation and with the approval of the Administrator, this Division (Special Plans) has designed four types of houses. These houses will contain from two to four bedrooms, will be brick veneer exterior, will contain basements and heating plants, and will utilize the wells which have already been dug. Individual septic tanks and sewage disposal fields will be provided for each house. Plots will vary in size from 5 to 10 acres. At present, the land is covered with second growth timber, and 1 acre on each plot has been cleared as a garden plot. In this first unit, there will be a total of 40 houses....

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As a second unit, it is proposed to purchase approximately 800 additional acres, developing such an acreage along the same lines as outlined above except as to the grouping of the houses.

A total of 84 units were constructed at a cost of \$983,984.30, or a unit cost of \$11,714.00. However, as was the case with many of the housing projects, it was likely that the homesteaders paid a lesser amount. The Duluth Homesteads, as well as the communities in Austin and Albert Lea, are believed to have been relatively successful financially, unlike many of the New Deal community projects.

### Resettlement and Land Utilization

St. Croix Recreational Demonstration Area - This was one of 46 Recreational Demonstration Areas in the United States whose purpose was to demonstrate how large tracts of submarginal agricultural lands could be converted into prototypical state parks which could serve the urban population.<sup>99</sup> The initial land acquisition was begun by the Federal Emergency Relief Administration, but once the Resettlement Administration was established the project area was significantly enlarged with an allocation of \$126,000 which was used to purchase an additional 19,000 acres, resulting in a total project area of over 27,000 acres. However, once the land purchase was complete, the entire project was turned over to the National Park Service for development. In addition, it is believed that only seven families were relocated from the lands. The National Park Service developed an extensive recreation area utilizing the labor of the CCC and WPA which constructed over 150 Rustic Style buildings and structures including three group camp facilities.<sup>100</sup>

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<sup>99</sup>The most famous of the Recreational Demonstration Areas was called Shangri-la during the Roosevelt Administration and later named Camp David.

<sup>100</sup>Additional information concerning the St. Croix RDA is found in the Multiple Property Documentation Form entitled, "Minnesota State Park CCC/WPA/Rustic Style Historic Resources," and the associated National Register nominations for the park.

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Beltrami Island Project - Representing the state's largest known project in resettlement and land utilization, the Beltrami Island Project was an extensive federal relief effort encompassing a 740,000 acre tract of land located in Beltrami, Roseau, and Lake of the Woods Counties. The project involved the relocation of hundreds of settlers from submarginal agricultural lands, the restoration of those lands to their natural condition, and the establishment of economic stability for the area through the development and management of forestry, wildlife, and recreational resources. The project was the first of the demonstration resettlement projects in the United States to begin the actual removal of its settlers and it became a pioneer experiment in settler relocation and land-use planning. The Resettlement Administration was assisted by every major federal relief program of the Depression Era including the State Emergency Relief Administration (SERA), the Works Progress Administration (WPA), and the Federal Emergency Administration of Public Works (PWA). Through resettlement, the financial position of the settlers was improved and the project relieved the serious financial problems encountered by the adjacent county governments through the reduction of tax delinquency, relief payments, and by facilitating the centralization of public services. Significant employment was also generated with an average of over 500 men employed in 1936, 400 in 1937, and 200 to 300 between 1938 and 1942. A total of 80,616.92 acres of land was purchased by the federal government.<sup>101</sup>

Pine Island Project - This project, which was also involved in resettlement and land utilization, was located to the east of the Beltrami Island Project in Koochiching County and actually shared the same administrative staff. The project area of 816,000 acres was actually larger than Beltrami Island, however, in terms of the number of settlers relocated and the land development activities, it appears the project was no more than half the size of Beltrami Island. The settlers for both projects were relocated using the infiltration method which placed the families on scattered sites rather than on a centralized farm community.

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<sup>101</sup>For a complete history of the Beltrami Island Project, refer to the National Register Nomination for the Norris Camp.

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Mud Lake Project - This project was located in Marshall County and like the Pine Island and Beltrami Island Projects, settlers were relocated from submarginal agricultural lands which had once been wetlands that were drained. The Resettlement Administration completed the purchase of 60,172 acres at a cost of \$368,153.60 and relocated 50 to 60 homesteaders. The lands purchased by the federal government were contiguous and efforts were undertaken to restore the original wetlands to their natural condition. The area became the Mud Lake National Wildlife Refuge which was later renamed the Agassiz National Wildlife Refuge.

Rice Lake Project - This project involved the purchase of 7,786.21 acres of land by the Resettlement Administration at a cost of \$36,786.35. The area became the Rice Lake National Wildlife Refuge. It is not known if any settlers were relocated.

Additional projects were planned in Pope and Marshall Counties although it is possible that long-term loans may have been the extent of the assistance provided by the Resettlement Administration. Land acquisition may have occurred in Becker County for the Tamarac National Wildlife Refuge.

One of the most remarkable legacies of the Resettlement Administration is a collection of 107,000 captioned prints and 210,000 negatives which were taken between 1935 and 1943 by the Historical Section of the Information Division. This section was headed by Roy Emerson Stryker, who had been a student of Rexford Tugwell's at Columbia University and later his colleague in the economics department. In the 1920s, Tugwell, Stryker, and Thomas Munro co-authored an innovative textbook entitled American Economic Life and the Means of Its Improvement. The book made extensive use of photographs selected by Stryker and helped develop his strong interest in visual images.

The purpose of the Historical Section was to promote the activities of the Resettlement Administration through photographic documentation, and three classifications of photographic activities were defined: service, information, and historical record. Service functions included meeting in-house needs such as providing other divisions with charts, drawings, exhibits, enlargements of plans, models, architect's drawings, as well as



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photographs showing the construction progress on the Resettlement Administration's projects. Information activities involved filling requests for photographs from magazines, newspapers, and publishers. The purpose of the historical record is perhaps the most intriguing from an historical standpoint and may reveal both Stryker's and Tugwell's long-range vision:

The historical and documentary function is fulfilled not only in keeping a record of the administration's projects, but also in perpetuating photographically certain aspects of the American scene which may prove incalculably valuable in time to come. Especially is this true of the rural scene, where a sympathetic and accurate record of all its phases is being made.<sup>102</sup>

Roy Stryker sent Paul Carter, one of the staff photographers, to northern Minnesota in 1936 to cover the Pine Island and Beltrami Island Projects. When commenting on the difficulty of capturing the problems of stranded settlers on film, Stryker wrote:

"Isolated schoolhouses and roads serving a limited number of people are very expensive items for the taxpayers of any county to maintain. This offers one of the best arguments for Resettlement, particularly so when one or two families living in an isolated region necessitate the maintenance of roads and schoolhouses. We need pictures to illustrate this situation."<sup>103</sup>

Carter's photographs of Beltrami Island capture many touching images of the living conditions of the isolated settlers. While in Minnesota, he also photographed Austin Acres. John Vachon, who was to become one of the Historical Section's most talented photographers, visited Minnesota in 1939 and 1941. During the visit in 1939 he photographed the Northern Minnesota Pioneer Home in Spooner, which housed older lumberjacks and farmers who had been displaced by the Beltrami Island Project. The photographs

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<sup>102</sup>Resettlement Administration, First Annual Report. (1936), P. 97.

<sup>103</sup>Robert L. Reid, Picturing Minnesota 1936-1943: Photographs from the Farm Security Administration. (St. Paul, Minnesota Historical Society Press, 1989), p. 32.

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from this later period, as well as those by other staff photographers, emphasized the rehabilitation of farm families on the project lands through assistance in the form of loans and expert advice and began to feature life in cities and small towns. In Minnesota these photographs featured a wide variety of subjects including lumber camps, the iron mines, migrant families, and scenes from the Twin Cities. Jack Delano, who joined the staff in 1940 called the project "a search for the heart of the American people." This extensive collection of photographs, which is presently identified within the Library of Congress as the Farm Security Administration-Office of War Information Collection, was praised by Edward Steichen, one of America's most respected photographers, as "the most remarkable human documents that were ever rendered in pictures."<sup>104</sup>

A overall assessment of the Resettlement Administration is somewhat problematic because of the various administrative and organizational changes which occurred, and because of the criticism which surrounded the agency. The Resettlement Administration was the most controversial of the New Deal programs and yet perhaps the most distinctive with its ambitious program of reform that was intended to reshape the face of rural and urban America. The community program attracted the majority of the criticism, although the 99 communities provided modern housing for nearly 11,000 families and their construction and management offered direct and indirect employment for thousands of workers. In spite of their problems, they represent the remarkable vision of their creators, which is even recalled in the title of a contemporary account by Paul K. Conkin entitled, Tomorrow a New World: The New Deal Community Program. From a financial standpoint, Minnesota's housing communities may be among the most successful of these efforts. The three greenbelt towns represent the most significant communities of the New Deal and remain a monument to Rexford G. Tugwell's work in the Resettlement Administration. They were the most original and ambitious experiments in public housing in the United States and represent the culmination of the garden city movement in America.<sup>105</sup>

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<sup>104</sup>Reid, pp. 1-2.

<sup>105</sup>Conkin, p. 305.

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Approximately 20,000 dislocated farm families were resettled, hundreds of thousands received assistance from the Rural Rehabilitation Division, and the serious problems of the migrant worker were addressed.

Yet, little analysis is available on the land utilization projects when compared with the housing communities, even though they involved more than 275 acquisition projects providing for the purchase of approximately 20 million acres of land. However, in his summation on the Resettlement Administration, Arthur Schlesinger commented, "The Resettlement Administration was doing as much as it could. In perhaps its most important work, RA's Land Utilization Division bought up many millions of acres of submarginal land and transferred them to states or to the Park or Forest Services to be converted into pasture or forest."<sup>106</sup> These projects are well-represented in Minnesota with examples such as the outstanding development at the St. Croix Recreational Demonstration Area and the extensive conservation efforts and land-use planning of the Beltrami Island Project. Together with the subsistence housing projects, the Resettlement Administration left its imprint across Minnesota with a variety of landscapes from the New Deal.

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<sup>106</sup>Schlesinger, p. 380.